

Wilfrid Laurier University

Scholars Commons @ Laurier

Theses and Dissertations (Comprehensive)

1993

An investigation of transformational and transactional leadership styles in personal social service organizations

Dieter Ernest Kays

Wilfrid Laurier University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholars.wlu.ca/etd>



Part of the [Social Work Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Kays, Dieter Ernest, "An investigation of transformational and transactional leadership styles in personal social service organizations" (1993). *Theses and Dissertations (Comprehensive)*. 205.

<https://scholars.wlu.ca/etd/205>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by Scholars Commons @ Laurier. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations (Comprehensive) by an authorized administrator of Scholars Commons @ Laurier. For more information, please contact scholarscommons@wlu.ca.



National Library
of Canada

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services Branch

Direction des acquisitions et
des services bibliographiques

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

NOTICE

AVIS

The quality of this microform is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

La qualité de cette microforme dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us an inferior photocopy.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de qualité inférieure.

Reproduction in full or in part of this microform is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30, and subsequent amendments.

La reproduction, même partielle, de cette microforme est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30, et ses amendements subséquents.

**AN INVESTIGATION OF
TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL
LEADERSHIP STYLES
IN PERSONAL SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS**

BY

Dieter Ernest Kays

B.A., Concordia Senior College, Ft. Wayne, Ind. 1969

M.Div., Concordia Seminary, St. Louis, Mo. 1973

M.S.W., Washington University, St. Louis, Mo. 1974

DISSERTATION

**Submitted to the Faculty of Social Work
In partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the Doctor of Social Work degree
Wilfrid Laurier University
1993**

© Dieter Ernest Kays 1993



National Library
of Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services Branch

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Direction des acquisitions et
des services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file *Votre référence*

Our file *Notre référence*

The author has granted an irrevocable non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of his/her thesis by any means and in any form or format, making this thesis available to interested persons.

L'auteur a accordé une licence irrévocable et non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de sa thèse de quelque manière et sous quelque forme que ce soit pour mettre des exemplaires de cette thèse à la disposition des personnes intéressées.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in his/her thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her permission.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège sa thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

ISBN 0-315-81536-1

Canada

ABSTRACT

The dissertation examines the applicability of transformational and transactional leadership style to personal social service organizations. The Executive Directors and their subordinates from 92 Children's Aid Societies and Children's Mental Health Centres in Ontario participated in the study. The results indicate significant positive relationships between transformational leadership (TFL) and job satisfaction, commitment, leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader. While not as robust, significant negative relationships were found between transactional leadership (TAL) and job satisfaction, commitment, leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader. It is pointed out that TAL and TFL are derived by averaging eight discrete factors into two sources. This procedure allows for a comprehensive analysis of TFL and TAL leadership, but results in the loss of information regarding the relative importance of the individual factors making up the score.

The dissertation concludes with suggesting that TFL and TAL are useful factors in examining leadership in personal social service organizations. However, while the TAL concept is relevant as an appropriate leadership style, the adequacy of Bass' Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire used to measure TAL is questioned. This research reflects that TAL and TFL is perceived as a bipolar concept rather than an independent one as suggested by Bass (1985). Areas for future research are suggested including the role of personal values in TFL; the measurement of TAL; the relevance of TAL and TFL to more direct service positions; and management training programmes to promote the development of TFL.

DEDICATION

To Martha Kays, my mother, who, through her faith in me and by her example challenged me to become the best I could be; and to Roz, my wife, whose impact on the lives of people, including mine, is greater than she knows.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Every significant achievement is made possible not only through the hard work of the person striving toward the goal, but also through the hard work, effort, and support of individuals who work behind the scenes to make good things happen. This dissertation is a classic example of that principle.

Jean O'Leavey was Chair of the Lutherwood Board at the time when I first shared my dream of returning to school. While her untimely death prevented her from actively participating in my educational plan, her early words of encouragement and support made me believe it was possible. Thank you, Jean. Without the commitment and support of the Lutherwood organization, particularly the Boards of Governors, this achievement would not have been possible. I am especially grateful to Harold Dietrich, John Mahn, Frank Moritz and more recently George Breen, and Jack Weber, who not only believed this was good for me, but had vision to see that this achievement would benefit the organization and the clients we serve.

I would like to thank the members of my committee, especially my co-chairs, Dr. Tupper Cawsey and Dr. Eli Teram, for their personal support and professional input. They challenged me to strive for excellence, supported me to think on my own, and modelled for me the best of what university education is all about. It was a privilege to have had them as "teachers" and to now consider them friends and colleagues.

A special thank you to my co-worker and friend, Pauly Raymond. Her helpful advice, questions, tireless editing and keyboarding contributed immensely to my sanity and the quality of the final product. It is one of the blessings of my life to be associated with such an individual.

Finally, a word of appreciation to my family. They are the individuals who ground me. They are my roots when I fly. They make my life complete and give it meaning even when things go wrong. Through their support and unfailing belief in me and my abilities, they gave me the courage to embark on this journey, and the strength to carry on even when the road became rocky.

To all these individuals whom God has sent into my life to make this achievement possible, I say thank you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I

1.0 Overview	1
1.1 Scope of the Research	1
1.2 Organizational Outline of the Thesis.....	2

CHAPTER II

2.0 The Problem	4
2.1 Introduction	4
2.2 Indicators of Effective Leadership	6
2.3 Personal Social Service Organizations	13
2.3.1 Definition of Personal Social Service Organizations (PSSOs)	13
2.3.2 Importance of the Human Service Sector	14
2.3.3. The Context of PSSOs	18
2.3.4 Summary of Problems Confronting PSSOs	27
2.4 Leadership	30
2.4.1 The Key to Addressing the Issues	30
2.4.2 The Obstacles to Effective Leadership in PSSOs	35
2.4.3 Managerial and Leadership Styles	36

CHAPTER III

3.0 Conceptual Framework	38
3.1 Leadership	38

3.2 Influence, Power and Authority	41
3.2.1 Influence	41
3.2.2 Power	42
3.2.3 Authority	44
3.3 Social Exchange Theory	45
3.4 Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)	47
3.5 Summary	51

CHAPTER IV

4.0 Models of Leadership	53
4.1 The Trait and Skill Approach	53
4.1.1 Stogdill's 1948 and 1974 Review	53
4.1.2 Assessment Centre Research	56
4.1.3 Managerial Motivation	57
4.1.4 Managerial Skills	60
4.2 The Behavioural Approach	61
4.2.1 The Ohio State Studies	61
4.2.2 University of Michigan Studies	63
4.2.3 Bowers and Seashore	64
4.3 Contingency Models	65
4.3.1 Fiedler's Contingency Model	65
4.3.2 House's Path-goal Theory	70
4.3.3 Vroom-Yetton Model	74
4.3.4 Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model	77
4.3.5 Yukl's Multiple Linkage Model	81
4.3.6 Analysis of the Contingency Approach	85
4.4 Charismatic/Transformational Models	90
4.4.1 House's Theory of Charismatic Leadership ...	92
4.4.2 Bass' Theory of Transformational Leadership	95
4.5 Summary	101

CHAPTER V

5.0	Background to the Problem	105
5.1	Recent Studies Relevant to Executive Leadership	106
5.1.1	Case Studies	106
5.1.2	Laboratory Experiments	116
5.1.3	Field Surveys	121
5.1.4	Summary	124
5.2	Leadership Research with PSSOs	129
5.3	Relevance of Current Study	132

CHAPTER VI

6.0	Methodology	133
6.1	Research Questions	135
6.2	Research Design	145
6.2.1	Instruments	145
6.2.2	Sample and Data Collection Procedure	149
6.2.3	Summary	152
6.3	Inputs - the Independent Variables	154
6.3.1	Leadership Style	154
6.3.2	Unit of Analysis for the Leadership Variable	156
6.4	Intervening Variables	160
6.4.1	Organizational Characteristics	160
6.4.2	Subordinate Characteristics	162
6.4.3	Leadership Characteristics	163
6.5	Outputs - the Dependent Variables.....	164
6.5.1	Organizational Outputs	165
6.5.2	Subordinate Outputs	170

CHAPTER VII

7.0	Profile of Sample	177
7.1	Sample	177
7.2	Organizational Data	178
7.2.1	Organizational Characteristics	178
7.2.2	Organizational Budgets	180
7.2.3	Agency Staffing	181
7.3	Subordinate Data	183
7.3.1	Subordinate Characteristics	183
7.3.2	Subordinate Perceptions	186
7.3.3	Overall Scores for Leadership Perceptions ..	188
7.4	Leadership Data	189

CHAPTER VIII

8.0	Data Analysis	206
8.1	Subordinate Perceptions and Characteristics	208
8.1.1	Job Satisfaction, Work Week and Commitment	211
8.1.2	Absenteeism 2 and Turnover 2	220
8.1.3	Leader Effectiveness	224
8.1.4	Satisfaction with the Leader	236
8.1.5	Characteristics of the Subordinate	242
8.2	Organizational Characteristics	246
8.2.1	Employees, Sites, Budgets, Unions	246
8.2.2	Turnover, Absenteeism, Budget Increases, and Fundraising	249
8.3	Leader Characteristics	251
8.3.1	Leader Age, Longevity, Education	251

CHAPTER IX

9.0 Conclusion	253
9.1 Discussion of the Findings	253
9.1.1 The Existence of TFL and TAL in PSSOs	254
9.1.2 Neutralizers of Leadership	258
9.1.3 Leadership Style and Perceptions of Subordinates	261
9.1.4 Leadership Style and Non-Subordinate Perception Variables	266
9.2 Implications	271
9.3 Limitations of the Study	278
9.4 Suggestions for Future Research	288
9.5 Final Comment	293
 BIBLIOGRAPHY	 294
 APPENDICES	 344

APPENDICES

	PAGE
APPENDIX I Vroom-Yetton Decision Making Processes	344
APPENDIX II Vroom-Yetton Decision Process Flow Chart ...	347
APPENDIX III Executive Director Questionnaire	349
APPENDIX IV Supervisee's Questionnaire	356
APPENDIX V CMHC Letter of Endorsation	361
APPENDIX VI Waterloo Region CAS Letter of Endorsation ..	363
APPENDIX VII Initial Participant Request	365
APPENDIX VIII Participating Agency Package	369
APPENDIX IX Reminder Letter	383

FIGURES AND TABLES

FIGURES

Figure 1:	Ontario MCSS Dollar Expenditures 1991/92 ...	17
2:	The Context of PSSOs	19
3:	Leadership in PSS Context	32
4:	Fiedler's Causal Relationships	67
5:	Fiedler's Leader/Group Performance Match ...	68
6:	House's Path-goal Model of Leadership	72
7:	Vroom-Yetton Decision Making Model	75
8:	Hersey, The Situational Leader	79
9:	Causal Relationships in the Multiple Linkage Model	83
10:	Summary of Situational Models	86
11:	Assessment of Charismatic Elements	111
12:	Summary of Recent Research	125- 126
13:	The Research Model	134
14:	Leadership Quads	159

TABLES

Table 1:	Number of Sites	191
2:	Services Provided	191
3:	Organizational Longevity	192
4:	Amount of Government Grant	192
5:	Amount of Fundraising	193
6:	Organizational Budget Size	194
7:	Full-Time Equivalents	195
8:	1991 Average Employee Absenteeism Rates ...	195
9:	Turnover Rates	196
10:	Subordinate Age	197
11:	Subordinate Education	197
12:	Subordinate Longevity	198
13:	Work Week	198
14:	Job Satisfaction	199
15:	Agency Commitment	200
16:	Leader Effectiveness	201
17:	Satisfaction with the Leader	201
18:	Transformational Leadership Scores	202
19:	Transactional Leadership Scores	203
20:	Age of Leaders	204

21:	Leader Experience	204
22:	Longevity in Same Position	205
23:	Leader Educational Level	205
24:	Subordinate Perceptions and Characteristics	210
25:	Regression Model for Transactional Leadership, Commitment, Satisfaction, and Work Week	213
26:	Regression Model for Transformational Leader- ship, Commitment, Satisfaction, Work Week....	214
27:	Two Way Anova - Job Satisfaction	215
28:	Two Way Anova - Commitment	216
29:	Two Way Anova - Work Week	217
30:	Quads by Job Satisfaction, Commitment, Work Week	219
31:	Two Way Anova - Absenteeism 2	221
32:	Two Way Anova - Turnover 2	222
33:	Leadership Quads by Absenteeism and Turnover	223
34:	Two Way Anova - Leadership Style By Leader Effectiveness	226
35:	TFL (FQUAD) by TAL (AQUAD) with Leader Effectiveness Interaction	227

36:	Leadership Style by Leader Effectiveness ...	229
37:	Regression Model for Transactional Leadership	231
38:	Regression Model for Transformational Leadership	233
39:	Scatter Plot - Transformational Leadership by Unit Effectiveness	235
40:	Two Way Anova - Satisfaction with Leader by Leadership Style	238
41:	TFL (FQUAD) by TAL (AQUAD) and Satisfaction with Leader Interaction	239
42:	Satisfaction with Leadership	241
43:	Leadership Style and Employee Characteristics	243
44:	Anova - Leadership and Employee Sex	245
45:	Correlation Matrix of Organizational Characteristics and Leadership Style	248
46:	Anova - Leadership Style - Quads, Budget Increases and Fundraising	250
47:	Leadership Style and Leader Characteristics Correlation	252
48:	Correlations for the Subordinate Responses by Agency	283

CHAPTER I

1.0 OVERVIEW

1.1 SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

The thesis examines leadership style, particularly transformational and transactional behaviours as defined by Bass (1985), and its relationship to subordinate perceptions (e.g. job satisfaction, commitment, satisfaction with the leader, and leader effectiveness) and characteristics (e.g. age, sex, status), as well as organizational outputs (e.g. budget increases, organizational turnover and absenteeism, etc.). The research surveys Executive Directors and their immediate subordinates in personal social service organizations (PSSOs), (Children's Aid Societies and Children's Mental Health Centres).

The study enhances our understanding of leadership and subordinate perceptions, behaviours, and characteristics. The study's findings:

- 1) examine the relevance of transformational and transactional leadership for PSSOs;

- 2) provide input for the recruitment, selection and training of management personnel in PSSOs; and
- 3) provide direction for future research regarding leadership in PSSOs.

1.2 ORGANIZATIONAL OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

The thesis begins with an overview of the scope of the dissertation. Chapter II provides a definition of the personal social service sector, identifying "personal social service organizations" (PSSOs) as the organizations of interest. Some of the problems confronting these organizations are reviewed and leadership is presented as a key component to assist PSSOs in overcoming their difficulties in the future. In particular, transformational and transactional leadership styles are discussed.

Chapter III reviews the relevant theories making up the conceptual framework. Models of leadership are presented in Chapter IV, reviewing the various theories of leadership that have been prominent in the last 40 years. This chapter concludes with the opinion that one of the more promising areas of research is the examination of transformational and transactional leadership

(Bass, 1985). Chapter V, under the heading of "Background to the Problem", reviews recent studies investigating transformational and transactional leadership and concludes that, while the results to date are promising, no research has been conducted among PSSOs.

Chapter VI, the methodology chapter, identifies the variables of interest, their definitions, and the research questions to be addressed. The overall research design is also reported. Chapter VII provides a general description of the sector within which the sample exists and gives a profile of the sample. Chapter VIII reports the results of the data analysis, with the final chapter, Chapter IX, identifying the conclusions and implications of the study.

CHAPTER II

2.0 THE PROBLEM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

A Chinese legend tells how a disciple of the great teacher, Confucius, came to him and asked "Teacher, what three things must a nation have in order to be strong?" Confucius thought for a moment and said, "In order for a nation to be strong the three things necessary are a powerful army, an abundant source of food, and good leaders." The student went away to consider the answer. The next day he came back and said, "Teacher, if a nation could only have two things to be strong, what would they be?" The great teacher thought and finally said, "If a nation could only have two things, it would need an abundant supply of food and good leaders." The disciple went away but came back a day later and said, "But master, if a nation could only chose one thing to make it great, what would it be?" Confucius thought and thought, unable to come to a decision. Finally he said, "That is very difficult for me to decide. You see,

without an abundant source of food the people of a nation will not live; but without good leaders they will have no reason to live." (Author unknown)

Good leaders and the leadership that is provided by them are important factors in the survival and success of any social system, whether that be an informal group, an organization, or even an entire nation. While some scholars question the value of leadership and its impact on organizational outcomes (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977), others state it is an important variable, but that its impact can only be properly considered when leadership is studied in a specific context (Thomas, 1988).

Nowhere is leadership more important than in the non-profit voluntary personal social service sector as it addresses the issues confronting it (Carver, 1991). This dissertation examines leadership in relation to outcomes in the non-profit personal social service organizations in Ontario. Specifically, leadership in children's services organizations will be examined.

2.2 INDICATORS OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

Depending on the writer and the purpose of the study, specific criteria of leadership effectiveness differ. Yukl (1981, p. 5-7) stated effective leadership is usually measured in the following ways:

- 1) The extent to which the leader's group or organization performs its task successfully and attains its goals. At times, objective measures can be obtained (e.g. profit margins, sales increase, cost per unit, etc.). At other times more subjective indicators of performance are used (e.g. questionnaires or ratings of the group's success made by the leader's superiors, peers, customers, or subordinates).
- 2) The attitude or behaviour of individual subordinates. Again, various objective measures are used including absenteeism rates, voluntary turnover, grievances, etc. As well, subjective indicators such as employee questionnaires or rating scales can measure the level of satisfaction with the leader.

- 3) The leader's contribution to group processes. Here the areas are measured by the perceptions of the followers or by some outside observer who is assumed to be more objective. The areas looked at include the degree to which the leader impacts positively on group cohesion, member cooperation, problem solving, decision making, conflict resolution, etc.

While organizational leadership studies are concerned with the impact of the formal leader, researchers in group dynamic and informal group structure indicate that multiple leaders emerge in a group, contributing a variety of leadership functions including task, relations, and self-oriented behaviours (Bales, 1950). An effective organizational leader utilizes the strengths of the members of the team to fulfill these emergent group needs.

Traditionally, the individualistic perspective that leadership caused certain things to happen was unquestioned. More recently, however, the "contextual" school of thought has developed which argues that the effects of leadership are very limited because of more important environmental and organizational variables (Pfeffer, 1977). It is suggested that both leaders and followers

are influenced by social forces in the work groups, by organizational climate, and by work technology (Franklin, 1975; Osborn and Hunt, 1975; and Schriesheim, 1980). Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy and Stogdill (1974) identified 15 contextual variables that have been found to have a moderating effect on two leadership behaviours - initiating structure and consideration.

Kerr and Jermier (1978, p. 395) suggested that certain contextual variables act as substitutes for the leader's influence, e.g. highly structured tasks for subordinates reduce the leader's task direction. Other variables would tend to neutralize the effect of leader influence, e.g. an organizational reward system that does not reward subordinates on the basis of work performed would limit or eliminate the influence a leader's task direction has on work performance. This would occur even though the variable would have no direct impact on the leader's task behaviour. In a study of leadership influence in hospital units, it was found that staff nurses' education, group cohesion and work technology had a direct influence on job performance and were substitutes for the head nurse's leadership (Sheridan, Vredenburgh and Abelson, 1984).

Furthermore, the hospital's administrative climate appeared to act as a neutralizer on leadership influence.

These findings are relevant to PSSOs which are the focus of the research described later. PSSOs have highly trained professionals who work independently, often in environments where the immediate supervisor or Executive Director does not fully understand the technical components of their jobs. At other times, the professionals work in satellite settings far removed from the administrative head office and the support management it can provide. These are factors which can neutralize the impact of leadership.

A number of researchers seem to be typical of those who question whether leaders really do make a difference. Lieberman and O'Connor (1972), in a much quoted study, compared the impact of leadership effects to the impact of environmental and organizational influences in 167 corporations. In this longitudinal study they concluded that much more variance in organizational performance can be attributed to environmental factors than to the leaders of the companies. Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) studied the impact that various mayors had on city government spending and

determined that the differences from mayor to mayor were minor, and that environmental factors determined directions. Meindl and Ehrlich (1987), in a simulation study, concluded that followers have a need to believe in the effectiveness of leadership and attribute success to leadership even when that relationship does not exist.

On the other hand, there are those who feel the findings that leadership does not make a difference are either overstated or based on faulty research. Weiner (1978), in a replication of the Lieberman and O'Connor study, tried to show that the order in which the independent variables were introduced into the analysis determined how significant a factor the leadership variable was. By reversing the order from the Lieberman and O'Connor study he showed how leadership accounted for 96.1% of the profit variance, 94.8% of the sales variance and 77% of the profit margin. Aldrich (1979) stated "Generalizing from their (Lieberman and O'Connor) findings is risky however, given definitional dependence between their three performance variables and the lack of organization-specific control variables" (p. 19). Hambrick and Mason (1984, p. 194) criticize both the Lieberman and O'Connor study and the Salancik and

Pfeffer study because the "choice of independent and dependent variables renders the result almost tautological."

It would appear, therefore, that indicators of effective leadership are difficult to determine. While environmental and organizational factors are responsible for determining the major differences between organizational performance indicators, leadership is still a factor needing to be considered. Thomas (1988), in a study of large retail firms in the United Kingdom, attempted to overcome some of the methodological problems of the Lieberman and O'Connor study, and came to the conclusion that:

- 1) leader differences do account for performance variances within the same firms, and
- 2) these impacts by leaders are generally insufficient to counteract the organizational variables between firms, i.e. leadership by itself is not sufficient to overcome the built-in variables between firms which impact on performance.

Another study supporting these conclusions was based on a longitudinal study of clergy. The study clearly identified effective leaders who consistently led churches that outperformed other similar churches that did not have the same type of leader, or outperformed themselves in comparison to previous years, when the leader was not judged to be as effective (Smith, Carson, and Alexander, 1984).

The message appears to be that, just like a racing car has built-in performance ranges based on its engine size and car weight etc., so also an organization, because of its size, demand for product, the external environment etc., has limits on its performance. Both, however, can have their potential performance enhanced or decreased based on the abilities of the driver or the leader. More needs to be learned about the subordinate variables which impact on leadership effectiveness. It would seem reasonable to assume that the more professional a worker is and/or the more independently he/she is expected to function, the more difficult it will be for a leader to influence that person, particularly as it relates to job performance. Leadership may need to be exercised around more general or abstract issues, e.g. a sense of vision, a purpose, etc.

2.3 PERSONAL SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

2.3.1 Definition of Personal Social Service Organizations (PSSOs)

PSSOs are a sub group of human service organizations (HSOs). HSOs are usually non-profit and unable to be measured by the same clear bottom line indicators that exist in the for-profit sector (Lewis and Lewis, 1983; Carver, 1991). The primary function of HSOs is to meet the social welfare needs of people as opposed to showing a profit. Social welfare can be defined as a set of human needs which requires a system or organization that embodies a multifaceted approach to social and economic problems, reflecting social values and using the expertise of interrelated disciplines for the collective good (Crampton and Keiser, 1970). Human service organizations in this context are seen to cover such a wide array of services that some scholars have been more specific in defining these organizations and their activities.

Hasenfeld and English (1977) identified "personal social service organizations" (PSSOs), which are seen as separate from large single-purpose human service functions, e.g. education, health, or welfare. PSSOs

are defined by Sainsbury (1977, p. 3), as organizations "... concerned with needs and difficulties which inhibit the individual's maximum social functioning, his/her freedom to develop his/her personality, and to achieve aspirations through relationships with others, needs which have traditionally been dealt with by personal or family action ...needs for which we usually ascribe some individual responsibility in the helping process, rather than a uniformity of provision." The human service organizations of interest and referred to in this thesis are primarily PSSOs according to Sainsbury's definition - non-profit personal social service organizations that provide a range of interdisciplinary services to individuals with needs and difficulties inhibiting their development.

2.3.2 Importance of the Human Service Sector

The non-profit human service sector is massive by most accepted measures. Martin (1985, p. xiii) studied the "humanistic sector" in Canada, which he described as providing citizens with quality health care services, schools and universities, churches and synagogues, theatres, art galleries, museums "... and a welfare net that catches those who drop or are pushed, out of the productive mainstream." In Canada, these organizations

number over 47,000 and in 1980 the sector accounted for over 31% of "the national income" or more than \$70 billion. The majority receive most of their operating funds from public sources. The human service sector "...employed more people - and higher priced people - than were on the direct payroll of all governments combined. Its influence on a specific community could be decisive or devastating. Those who managed large humanistic organizations possessed economic power and influence vastly exceeding that of most corporate executives" (Martin, 1985, p. 31).

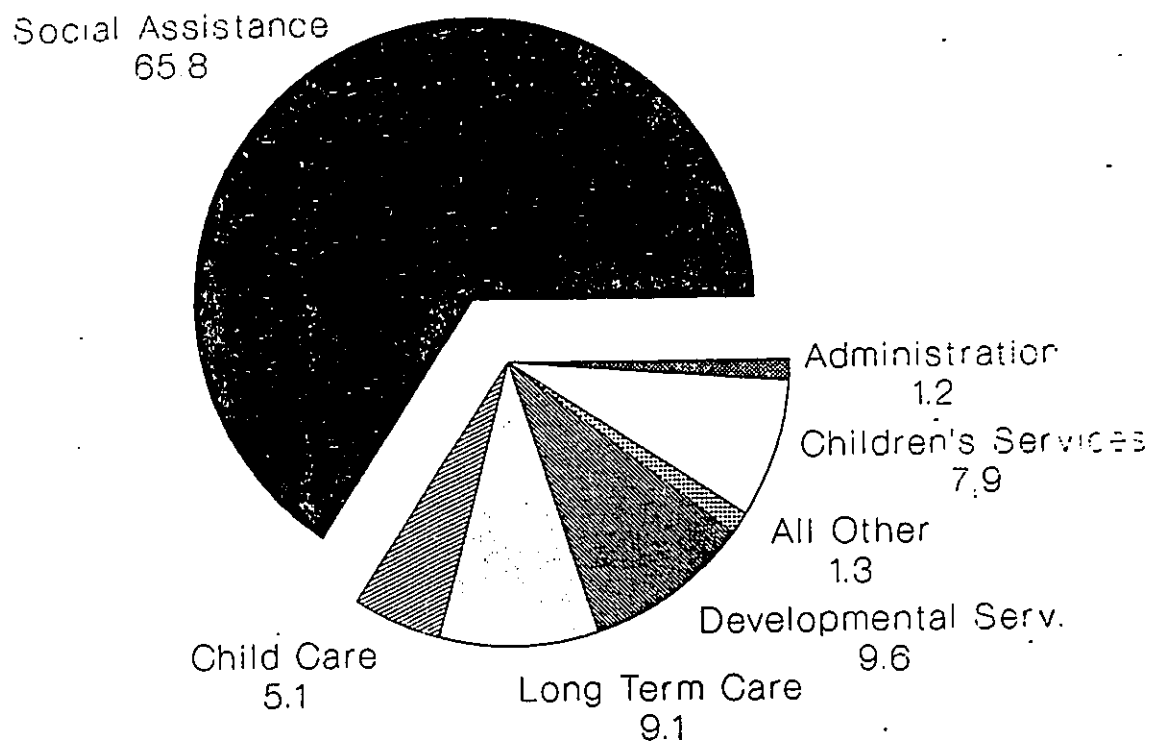
In Ontario, the provincial government Ministry of Community and Social Services (MCSS) is the primary funding source of personal social service organizations. MCSS spends \$10.3 billion or 19.4% of the overall provincial government budget, second only to the Ministry of Health (Ministry of Treasury and Economics, September, 1991). MCSS estimates it serves in excess of 500,000 citizens of Ontario through organizations and services assisting the elderly, handicapped people, families with unemployment, single parents, out-of-work youth and children who are experiencing emotional or family difficulties (Investing in Ontario's Future, June, 1986). The organizations involved in providing children's services, which are the focus of the

study, (e.g. Children's Aid Societies and Children's Mental Health Centres) account for over \$800 million annually of the MCSS budget (cf. Figure 1: MCSS News, May 1992) and employ in excess of 11,000 highly trained professionals (Wage Compensation Project, March 21, 1991).

FIGURE 1

(MCSS News, May 1992)

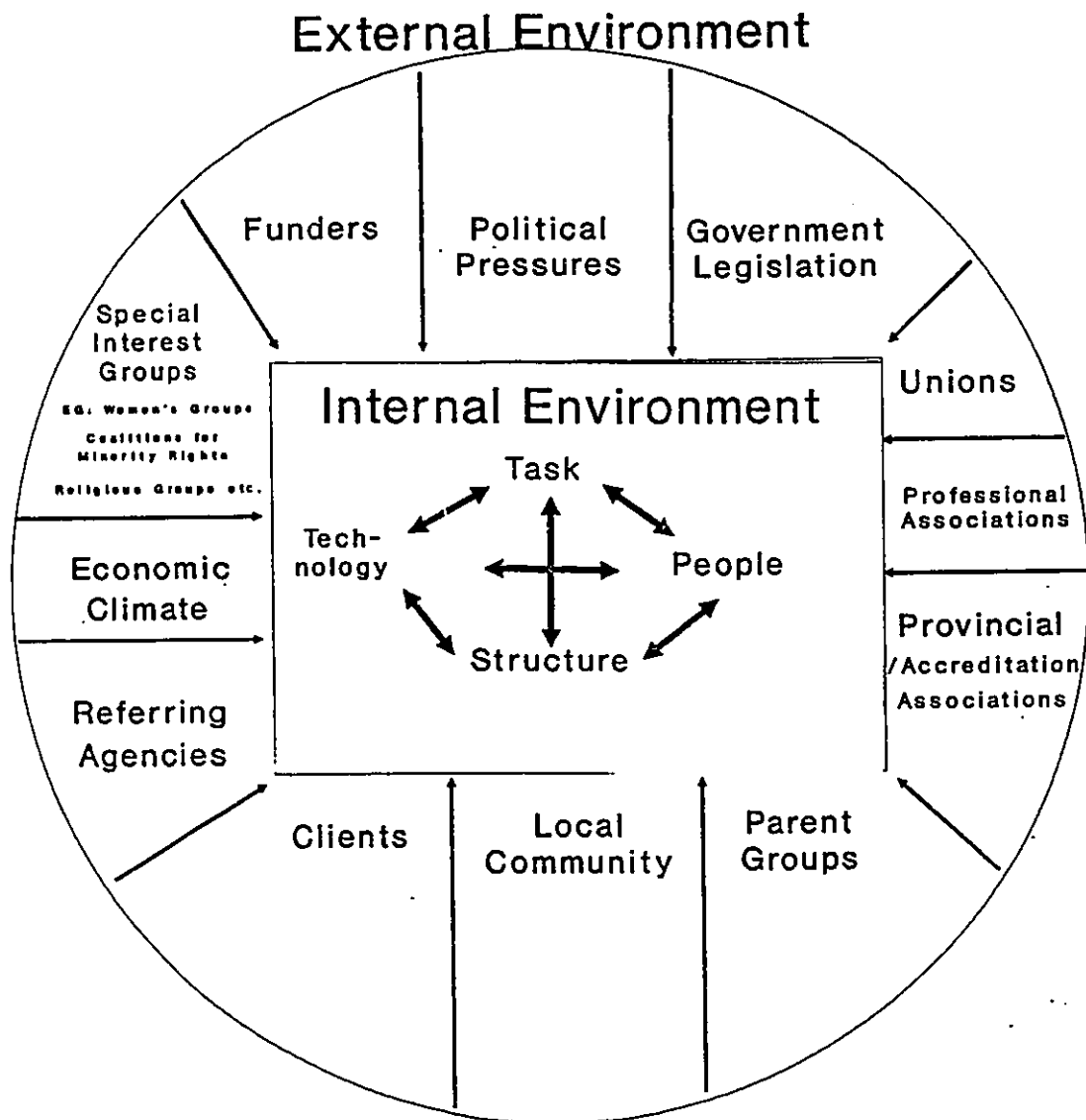
Ontario MCSS Dollar Expenditures 1991/92



2.3.3 The Context of PSSOs

It is important to understand the internal and external environments within which PSSOs function. While there are many helpful models through which to examine an organization (Nadler, 1977; Thomas, 1985; Tichy, 1975), Leavitt's model of organizations (1965) will be used since it lends itself to being adapted to the PSS sector. The model identifies four major areas of organizational functioning which interact. These are structure, task, technology, and people. The writer has added the outer ring to reflect the various influences which impact on the internal organization (cf. Figure 2: The Context of PSSOs). The arrows moving from the external environment circle toward the internal environment square indicate the influence the various sectors exert on the organization. The reciprocal arrows between the four elements indicate that each element influences each of the other three, and vice versa. For example, because workers are engaged in a task that involves helping other people, one of the technologies or skills required is the ability to establish a trusting relationship between worker and client. This requires a person with particular attributes (e.g. strong interpersonal skills, emotional awareness, etc).

FIGURE 2: THE CONTEXT OF PSSOs



The Internal Environment

Task: The task of PSSOs is to help people change and/or provide support for them, allowing them to exercise a full range of options in their environments. For most PSSOs, the task is hard to define and is interpreted differently by people within the organization (Cohen and March, 1975; Harshbarger, 1975; Hasenfeld, 1983).

Not only are the goals difficult to define, but the criteria for success are confusing (Hasenfeld, 1983). While there are times when workers receive positive feedback, this does not occur on a regular basis. While much has been written about the powerlessness of clients (Neugeboren, 1985; Lipsky, 1980; Hasenfeld, 1983), many professionals in the field perceive clients quick to point out the shortcomings of the worker, the organization, and the "system". Workers do not regularly feel a sense of accomplishment or success based on objective external feedback. Depending on the agency, this can result in high staff turnover rates and/or burnout.

An underlying fear of management and workers is that a child may harm him/herself, or others, while under the care of a PSSO. Not only is there concern for

the welfare of the child involved, but also for the career of the professional and the reputation of the agency. In these cases, public outrage often follows and inquiries take place to determine where and why the "system" failed in its task. An unwritten message given to professionals by the organization and professional associations to minimize the impact of such an event is "Make sure you can prove that you did not screw up!"

Structure: The structure of most PSSOs is hierarchical where a voluntary Board of Directors, usually drawn from interested people in the community, is responsible for the overall operation of the organization (Carver, 1990). The Directors, in turn, hire an Executive Director who is charged with the day-to-day management of the organization within the policies developed by the Board. The formal system consists of a supervisory structure which must be accountable for and direct workers, who often belong to unions and professional associations. These outside groups are also involved in providing direction to the workers.

The agency structure usually entails staff working in interdisciplinary teams which change make-up depending on the specific client. Often, in large agencies,

workers are members of programmes (e.g. a residential programme for emotionally troubled children, or a child abuse team, etc.) as well as belonging to departments to which they are accountable because of their professional identities, (e.g. psychology department, social work department, etc.). Each worker brings to the situation "a different philosophy and a different degree of power" (Neugeboren, 1985, p. 183). The structure can become complex and result in confusion about who has the authority to make what decision. The situation may be further aggravated because managers in the structure are usually highly trained clinicians, without formal training in management skills.

Technology: While the term "technology" usually refers to applying scientific or mechanical techniques to industrial problems or tasks (Webster, 1970), Hasenfeld defines a human service technology as " ... a set of institutionalized procedures aimed at changing the physical, psychological, social or cultural attributes of people in order to transform them from a given status to a new prescribed status" (Hasenfeld, 1983, p. 111). It is used here to refer to the skills and techniques used by workers to meet the needs of clients in a PSSO.

The technology in PSSOs is ambiguous and difficult to define (Hasenfeld, 1983). Professionals use a combination of common sense and highly technical and abstract concepts. Verbal therapies are used that take years of training but are often "caught" rather than "taught". "Assessment tools" (paper questionnaires) are used which rely on the assessor to determine if the answer received from the client is accurate, and then to further interpret what it means. Conclusions about the problem are then made and treatment strategies or action plans are developed. The nature of the technology and the task requires that a therapist combine art and science, often unsure where the one begins and the other ends. To state that PSSO professionals are involved in a soft science seems to be an understatement.

The use of interdisciplinary teams, where each individual represents a particular profession with a body of knowledge relevant to the needs of the client, is a key part of the technology of most PSSOs (Neugeboren, 1985). Upon assessing the individual client, the professionals come together to share their findings and determine the strategies to be used and how each strategy will be implemented. Conceptually, the process is clear. However, it is often difficult to monitor or measure.

Experience further indicates that it is necessary to apply the technology within a trusting relationship with the client, built on values of the client's right to self-determination, honesty, partnership, and caring. This emphasis on the importance of the relationship and the lack of consensus on what end results measure success, leads the sector to stress that the process or the means is more important than the ends (Drucker, 1977; Carver, 1979). It is difficult for PSSOs to come up with a definition of successful task completion and the feeling of unequivocal success is a rarity.

People: The workers involved in the task are highly educated, often spending between four to eight years in full-time education after high school. Their remuneration and benefits, while limited when compared to the for-profit sector, nevertheless allow workers to be reasonably comfortable (e.g. average salaries are between \$33,000 to \$50,000 (Wage Compensation Project, March 21, 1991). Most continue to be involved in extensive ongoing training throughout their careers.

PSSO professionals "all enter the work force at least in part with a desire to make a contribution to individuals in the community... Once attracted to these occupations, however, the dynamics (of the overall

environment) combine to persuade workers that they are destined to be ineffective in their chosen fields, that clients may not substantially benefit from their efforts, or that conditions of successful intervention are not likely to be available" (Lipsky, 1980, p. 185).

The high level of training and expertise they possess, their motivation, as well as the frustration of bringing about client changes can make them skeptical of, and resistant to, authority structures and implementation of decisions into which they have not had input (Neugeboren, 1985). They are intelligent, with excellent verbal and conceptual skills. The writer has perceived it is the needs of the client that tend to be the workers' primary authority, making it difficult for them to relate to organizational concerns unless these can be shown to have an impact on clients.

The External Environment

Personal social service organizations (PSSOs) find themselves in a difficult environment. Government and the public-at-large demand that PSSOs show increased accountability to major stakeholders (Future Directions: Towards a More Responsive Children's Mental Health System, Discussion Paper, The Ontario Association of

Children's Mental Health Centres, 1992). The measures of accountability, however, are ill-defined and vary from stakeholder to stakeholder. The number of stakeholders that a PSSO is accountable to includes individual clients, parent or consumer associations, government funding and regulatory agencies, service groups, referring agencies, professional associations, provincial/accrediting associations, politicians, and the public-at-large. These pressures increase the turbulence in the environment which the organization faces. In this chaotic environment the organization is "likely to pursue multiple often conflicting goals that severely constrain its ability to design a rational internal structure" (Hasenfeld, 1985, p. 148).

New government legislation guarantees more rights to individuals for appropriate service, costing more money (e.g. Ontario's Education Bill 82 and the Child and Family Services Act; the federal Young Offenders Act and the Charter of Rights of Freedoms), at a time when the economic climate requires financial restraint. All of these factors contribute to a high level of stress, confusion, and frustration in the PSS sector (Lipsky, 1980).

2.3.4 Summary of Problems Confronting PSSOs

As can be seen, the internal environment of PSSOs has a number of inherent difficulties which are aggravated by pressures from the external environment. Some of the major problems identified include:

- 1) A lack of clarity in organizational goals and objectives (Cohen and March, 1975; Harshbarger, 1975; Drucker, 1977). When compared to for-profit organizations, PSSOs tend to have goals that are vague and difficult to measure.
- 2) A lack of consensus in the values and expectations among the groups involved in service delivery (Cohen and March, 1975; Cyert, 1975; Barton, 1981; Kouzes and Mico, 1979). Child care workers want enriched environments for emotionally troubled children, while social workers and psychologists feel that better assessments and psychotherapy are needed. Administrators want to see maximum case loads, clinicians want fewer cases in order to provide intensive help. At times these conflicts can

be attributed to divergent allegiances between professional training and commitment to agency policies (Whittington, 1973; Carver, 1979).

- 3) A higher commitment to the means by which something is accomplished, than to the end results (Drucker, 1977; Carver, 1979; McClure, 1979). The consequence is a commitment to a particular methodology, even though the methodology has outlived its relevance in meeting the current needs.
- 4) Difficulty in measuring the outputs of personal social service organizations (Cyert, 1975; Newman and Wallender, 1978; Rossi, 1978). Part of the difficulty in measuring goals and outputs comes from the difficulty in agreeing on the objectives in the first place. This often results in the relevant authorities, whether they be the Board of Trustees, funders, or the administrator, being unable to hold the agency as a whole, or individual employees, accountable for performance (Lewis and Lewis, 1983).

- 5) A lack of connection between agency effectiveness and resource allocation (Drucker, 1977; Cyert, 1975; Newman and Wallender, 1978; Lewis and Lewis, 1983). As Carver (1990, p. 6) indicates, "A non-profit is adrift from the foundation that would enable it to define success or failure, to know what is worth doing and in the larger sense to recognize good performance."
- 6) A resistance on the part of workers to respond positively to hierarchical management structures and traditional position power. For a variety of ideological, political, technological and cognitive factors, workers are resistant to change, and traditional management structures and methods achieve limited success (Neugeboren, 1985).
- 7) A technology and knowledge base that is complex, incomplete, everchanging and often contradictory (Hasenfeld, 1983). The technology requires a high level of training but the effect cannot readily be determined by the worker.

- 8) Legislation granting more rights to special needs populations resulting in increasingly vocal and articulate clients demanding service (e.g. the Canadian Federal Young Offenders Act, the Ontario Education Bill 82 and the Child and Family Services Act).
- 9) Growing strength of professional groups and organized labour (e.g. Ontario's current reform of the Labour Relations Act, licensing of professionals, credentialism).

2.4 LEADERSHIP

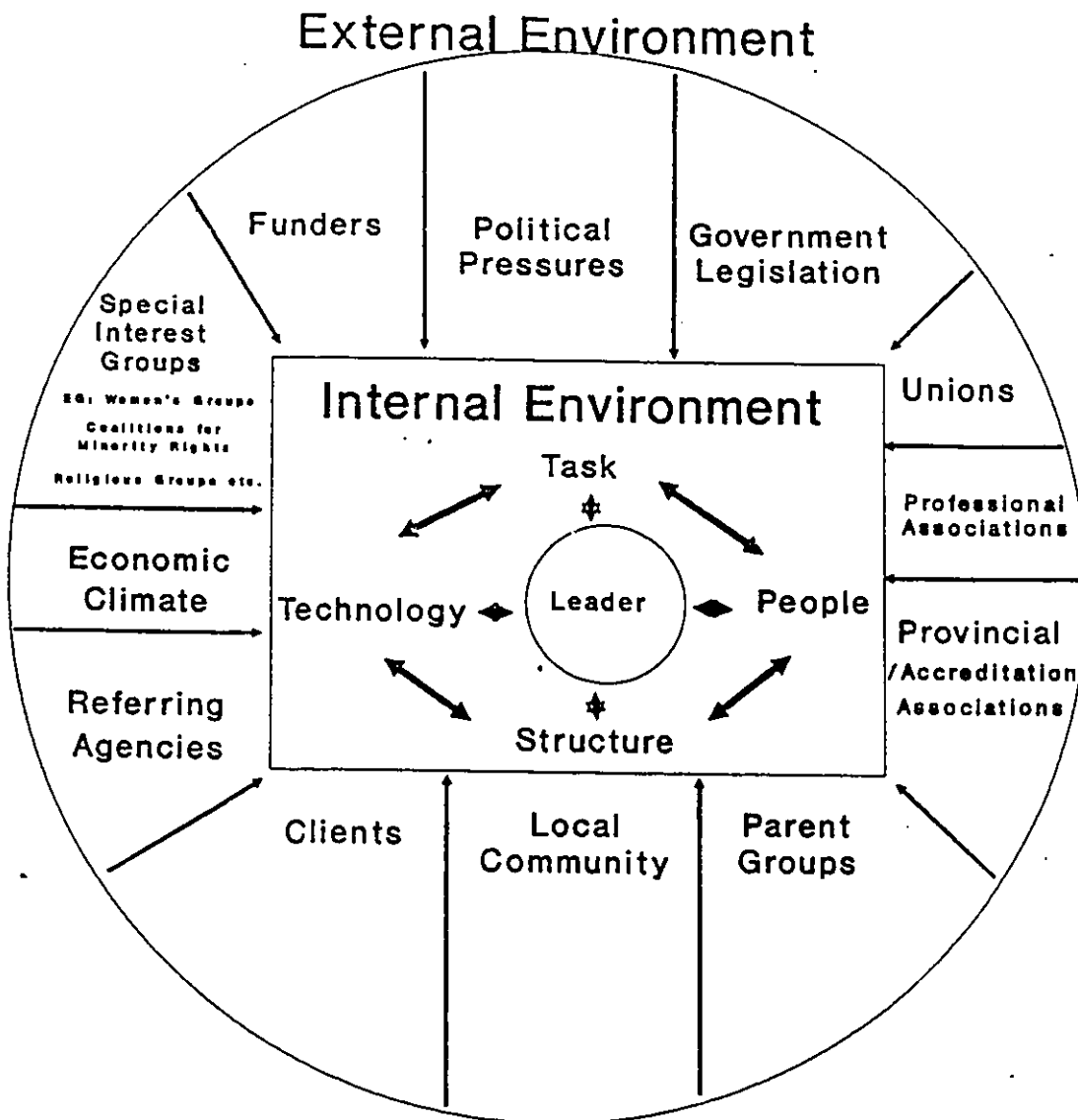
2.4.1. The Key to Addressing the Issues

While each of these issues can be addressed by a number of specific strategies, all involve the issue of leadership, leader competence and effectiveness. By adding a circle in the center of the internal environment square, the model described earlier can be shown to incorporate the concept of leadership (cf. Figure 3: Leadership in PSS Context). The reciprocal arrows between the leader and the four elements of the internal organization discussed earlier indicate how the leader

influences each of the organizational elements, but how in turn each of the elements has an impact on leadership.

The leader cannot use traditional hierarchical leadership methods with workers because of their desire for understanding and involvement in decisions affecting clients, the existence of outside authorities (e.g. unions and professional associations), and other neutralizers of leadership (e.g. strong worker values, commitment to the client, etc.). The leader cannot use traditional position power to dictate to employees how they should perform their work, since much of the technology used by individual workers may be beyond the expertise of the leader. The task, as well, must be performed outside of the direct supervision and observation of the leader since the activity of helping must be done in a confidential manner. All of these elements influence how an effective leader responds (e.g. enhancing worker participation in decision making; providing explanations and rationales for decisions, relating organizational decisions to client needs whenever possible, etc.).

FIGURE 3: LEADERSHIP IN PSS CONTEXT



Glisson (1989, p. 100), discussing leadership in PSSOs, describes effective leadership as motivating and inspiring, as affecting how employees view their organization, and as providing employees with a clear notion of mission and values. Many scholars make the case that strong leaders and effective leadership skills are required in personal social service organizations as never before (Carver, 1991; Glisson, 1989).

The PSS sector is going through a period of rapid change and leaders are seen as playing a key role in perceiving the need for change and organizing to implement those changes (Hambrick and Finkelstein, 1987; Shortell and Zajac, 1990). Researchers support the view of Katz and Kahn (1966, p. 302) that leadership is "the influential element over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization." Structure and form is necessary in an organization but it is leadership that makes it vital, relevant, and effective (Lord, DeVader and Alliger, 1986; Pondy, 1978; Glisson, 1989).

As important as leadership is judged to be, researchers are concerned about the lack of competent, trained leaders in PSSOs (Potts, 1985; Bargal and Schmidt, 1989; Hart, 1988). Some writers speaking on

behalf of the social work profession are dismayed that the number of social workers in positions of leadership in PSSOs is in fact declining (Patti, 1986; Perlmutter, 1980). Other writers make the observation that rarely does top management in the social services sector recruit managers whose only background is management or business (White, 1981). Most, however, agree that when clinicians or direct practitioners move into management positions they experience considerable role discontinuity (Patti, Diedreck, Olson and Crowell, 1979; Potts, 1985) and are ill-prepared for the task of being a leader (Potts, 1985; Patti, 1984; Fram, 1982; Hart, 1988). While they advocate better on-the-job training programmes for management personnel (Potts, 1985) and more relevant curriculum in social work university programmes (Hart, 1988), they recognize that leadership effectiveness is a combination of training and personal traits (Bargal and Schmidt, 1989; Glisson, 1989).

Furthermore, the establishment of relevant training and educational programmes to develop effective leaders for personal social service organizations can only occur if our understanding of leadership is enhanced. While there appears to be greater interest in the area of leadership in PSSOs over the last two to three years, there is still a lack of knowledge and research

activity in this field which must be overcome (Hart, 1988; Potts, 1985). The research required must be contextual in order to be relevant to PSSOs and human service organizations generally (Thomas, 1988), and explore the links between leadership and worker attitudes and perceptions (Pondy, 1978; Glisson, 1989). Furthermore, the distinction needs to be made between managers who can be trained and leaders who must be developed (Zaleznik, 1977). Effective leaders who can positively influence individuals and organizations are in short supply but are very much needed. Leaders who are able to motivate and inspire subordinates, and provide them with a clear vision and a sense of mission, must be developed in the sector. These leaders must lead at a time, and in an environment, where it is easy to become overwhelmed, discouraged and burned out.

2.4.2 The Obstacles to Effective Leadership in PSSOs

The obstacles to effective leadership are many but include:

- 1) External forces to the organization that are beyond the control of the organization, diminishing or neutralizing the impact of even the most effective leader.

- 2) Ambiguities in the task, technology and structure, making it difficult for the leader to intervene in a focused manner.
- 3) Workers who, through education and a conviction to certain values, are resistant to administrative authority, i.e. position power.
- 4) A lack of management expertise and models of leadership which are appropriate to the PSS sector.

2.4.3 Managerial and Leadership Styles

One of the more promising directions in the research on leadership over the last several years is the distinction made by Bass (1985) identifying transactional and transformational styles of leadership. Transactional leadership is described as the leader's direction or involvement with a subordinate focusing on the specific task or job description to be performed by the worker. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, refers to the leader's influence on the subordinate to communicate and instill values, a common vision, and a general sense of empowerment causing the subordinate to strive above and beyond what is expected.

The transformational style seems to be consistent with Zaleznik's (1977) leader role, whereas the transactional style appears consistent with the activities of a manager as defined by him.

As will be reviewed in the next chapter, the results of this research, conducted in primarily for-profit settings or experimental groups, hold promise of enhancing our understanding of leadership. Transformational leadership appears particularly relevant in organizations which are geographically dispersed, require considerable independent functioning on the part of subordinates, or where, because of size, the leader is unable to maintain direct relationships with all subordinates and must lead by inspiration rather than by controlling the subordinates' environment (House, Spangler, Woycke, 1991; Waldman, Bass, Einstein, 1987; Delouga and Souza, 1991; Avolio, Waldman, and Einstein, 1988; Howell and Frost, 1989). It would seem that in a social service environment consisting of highly educated professionals, requiring a consensus decision-making approach where employees are expected to regularly go beyond the minimum, this type of leadership is very relevant.

CHAPTER III

3.0 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In addressing the area of leadership, a number of terms and concepts must be identified and defined. They include leadership, influence, power, authority, social exchange theory, and leader-member exchange theory. These terms and concepts will now be discussed.

3.1 LEADERSHIP

Even a brief review of the literature quickly establishes that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as people that have studied the subject (Stogdill, 1974, p. 7). Bennis (1959, p. 259) surveyed the leadership literature and stated "Always, it seems the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it and still the concept is not sufficiently defined."

A random sample of definitions of leadership will illustrate this diversity. Leadership or leader influence implies a relationship between the leader and the led, and suggests four basic elements: the leader, the follower, the context and the goal (Crook, 1986). Janda (1960, p. 358) said leadership is "a particular type of power relationship characterized by a group member's perception that another group member has the right to prescribe behaviour patterns for the former regarding his activity as a group member." Leadership, stated Jacobs, (1970, p. 232) is an "interaction between persons in which one presents information of a sort and in such a manner that the other becomes convinced that his outcomes (benefit/cost ratio) will be improved if he behaves in the manner suggested or desired." Kochan, Schmidt, and DeCotis (1975, p. 285) defined the term as an influence process whereby "O's actions change P's behaviour and P views the influence attempt as being legitimate and the change as being consistent with P's goals."

Leadership can also be defined in more general terms. Katz and Kahn (1978, p. 528) stated that leadership "is the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization." For Stogdill (1974, p. 411) it is "the

initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction." Tannenbaum, Weshler and Massarik (1961, p. 24) referred to the concept as "interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals."

It would appear that, generally, leadership is defined in terms of the relationship between a leader and one or more group members, whether that be in the context of a formal organization or an informal group. The concept also implies an influence process which on balance, favours the leader. From there, the definitions diverge. While some state the influence process must be focused on the accomplishment of goals, other researchers take a more general approach. While some see compliance as a legitimate outcome of leadership, others see commitment of followers as being necessary. A key reason for the differences is that the operational definition of leadership will depend on the purpose of the research (Campbell, 1977; Karmel, 1978). This, however, makes it difficult for subsequent researchers to compare research since often different phenomena are being explored.

The confusion of how does one define leadership is further aggravated when the difference between managing and leading is articulated. Holloman (1984) states that supervisory headship is based on authority relations or control by virtue of position and corresponding authority. Leadership, on the other hand, is based on leader-follower relations and personal influence.

3.2 INFLUENCE, POWER, AND AUTHORITY

While power need not result in leadership, there can be no leadership without power (Graumann, 1986, p. 93). As a result, any discussion of leadership must include the key concept of power, and the ancillary concepts of influence and authority. Leaders influence followers and followers influence leaders. In this reciprocal relationship power and authority are key concepts.

3.2.1 Influence

Influence is the effect one party has on the other. The consequences of an agent's influence may be what the agent desired or it may be something totally different. The influence of the agent over the target may be so strong that it ensures control over the target or it may

be so weak that the target feels pressure but is not compelled to do anything different. Influence may result in compliance, commitment or resistance (Yukl, 1989).

Yukl (1981, p. 11) describes influence by identifying eleven different influence processes from the literature which are also closely related to power processes. These include making a legitimate request, coercion, persuasion, appealing, indoctrination, instrumental compliance, rational faith, inspirational appeal, information distortion, situational engineering, and personal identification. For Rosen (1984), influence becomes the use of persuasion in the implementation of leadership goals. Gamson (1968) states that there are three means of influence: persuasion, inducements, and constraints.

3.2.2 Power

Power generally refers to an agent's capacity to influence a target person (Yukl, 1989). In its simplest form it can be described as the ability of one person to obtain compliance from another person (Hellriegel and Slocum Jr., 1979), or the "ability to bring about the outcomes that are desired" (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977; Tushman, 1977; Winter, 1973).

Mintzberg (1983, p. 26) describes power as consisting of "a bases as well as the ability to use the bases." In this way he states power is based on a "means" and a "system" to exploit the means. For Mintzberg (p. 4) "power is defined as the capacity to affect organizational outcomes." A number of writers see power as having a coercive element whereby the agent is in a position to carry out his/her will despite resistance from the other person (Blau and Scott, 1962; Rosen, 1984).

Another way of looking at power is by referring to "personal power" and "position power" (Yukl, 1981). Position power is the influence that is based on the authority that is vested within the administrative role regardless of what person occupies the position. It can include the power to hire, fire, reprimand or reward an employee. Personal power, on the other hand, is the power of a leader to influence a subordinate on the basis of his or her personal attributes quite apart from the power tied to the position. Research indicates that a leader's ability to get commitment from his/her followers is related to the ability to use personal power more than position power

(French and Snyder, 1959). As will be evident later, transformational leadership style relies more on personal power than position power.

3.2.3 Authority

Authority is seen by Mintzberg (1983, p. 5) as a subset of power. It is the formal power which is invested in the office, i.e. the capacity to get things done by virtue of the position held. Whereas power is the agent's capacity to exert influence, authority is the agent's right to exert influence (Jacobs, 1970). Authority is the right to use power because it has been bestowed upon the position by common consensus or by a third party who is perceived to have the right to do so (Rosen, 1984). Authority is usually defined by formalized relationships between established roles. These relationships have been established in order to accomplish the goals of the organization. Authority in this sense can also be defined as "legitimate power" (Dornbush and Scott, 1975). In order for authority to exist, however, there must be an acceptance of this authority by members in the organization who are impacted by it. The actualization of authority can also be perceived by followers as the exercising of control (Grimes, 1978).

Four conditions of authority have been identified by Blau and Scott (1962):

- 1) Authority is invested in a position regardless of the personal characteristics.
- 2) Voluntary compliance by subordinates exists, i.e. subordinates accept the responsibilities or duties that are conferred on them by the authority.
- 3) Subordinates suspend their judgments in advance of receiving the command or decision.
- 4) Authority arises in a collective context with a common value orientation, where subordinates agree that the right exists to control their activities.

3.3 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

Social exchange theory is an attempt to explain the reciprocal relationship which exists between either individuals or organizations. It is based on the influence, power, or authority which exists between two people. The theory states that individuals interact with one another over time in order to get their individual needs met (Yukl, 1981). In order to get the needs met, an individual will give to the other,

material and/or psychological benefits that he/she possesses. Repeated over a period of time, this leads to a mutual attraction. While several versions of social exchange theory exist, the most relevant are versions by Hollander (1979) and Jacobs (1970) since these are applied specifically to leadership.

When exchange theory is applied to formal leaders and organizations, the analysis becomes more complex than when applied to emerging leadership in informal groups. The complexity comes from the individuals' exchange relationship being superimposed on a more primary social exchange relationship between each individual and the organization. This latter exchange relationship is a contract that gives to the individual certain benefits, e.g. wages, status, etc., in return for, among other things, the acceptance of legitimate authority (Yukl, 1981, p. 31). As a result, the formal leader is not nearly as vulnerable to loss of status and power as an emergent leader, as long as the requests he/she makes are within the confines of what is perceived to be his/her legitimate power (position power).

Research has indicated, however, that continuous incompetence will lead to loss of leader status and esteem with followers and eventually to an undermining of position power (Evan and Zelditch, 1961). The exchange process by which formal leaders seem to acquire more influence beyond their position power operates in much the same way that it does for emergent leaders (Yukl, 1981, p. 3).

3.4 LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE THEORY (LMX)

A variation of the social exchange theory is called the vertical dyad linkage theory (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975; Graen and Cashman, 1975). More recently, it has been renamed the "Leader-Member Exchange", (LMX), (Graen, Novak and Sommerkamp, 1982). It is based on role theory which states that organizational members accomplish their work through roles and that it becomes important to study the nature of roles and the processes by which these roles are defined and developed (Graen, 1976, p. 1201).

The theory goes on to say that roles are ambiguously and incompletely specified and must be fully defined by the organization's participants. Persons who have a strong interest in the role performance of

another person will attempt to influence how that person carries out that role. The leader shapes the other person's perception of the role and his/her functioning in it through a number of role expectation episodes with the person in question. If the target person has enough of these role expectation episodes, his/her role behaviour becomes defined (Graen, Orris and Johnson, 1973, p. 396). The process is unstructured and informal, with the actors often not being conscious of the process (Dienisch and Liden, 1986).

The vertical dyad linkage theory of the leader-member exchange refers to a leader and one individual. The theory states that a leader establishes a relatively close relationship with a small group of subordinates. This group forms an "in-group" relationship with the leader, marked by a high degree of mutual interdependence. The group gives to the leader such benefits as above average loyalty, high motivation to meet goals, and willingness to take on extra tasks. In return, the leader commits him/herself to consulting the members of the group as well as providing them with other desirable benefits.

The remainder of the employee group forms the "out-group". With this group there is a relatively low level of mutual influence. The leader tends to operate from a position of legitimate authority, coercive power, and some reward power. The subordinate is expected to comply with the formal expectations of the job which become the basis of the exchange (Liden and Graen, 1980).

Research exploring this theory confirmed the benefits of the exchange for the in-group and the leader, e.g. greater leader attention, leader support, amount of energy and time invested in the job by members, members' attitudes toward the job and fewer job problems. Perceptions of differences between in-group and out-group exchanges were similar both for leaders and subordinates (Graen and Cashman, 1975). Liden and Graen (1980) found out-group members reported less time on decision-making and boundary-spanning activities. They were also less likely to volunteer for extra assignments and were rated as lower performers than were members of the in-group. In a study by Scandura and Graen (1984) the productivity of employees of a large government service agency were monitored. The results

showed that their productivity went up as leader-member exchanges improved due to a leadership training programme.

Similarly, in a PSSO, the relationships between workers, and between workers and their leaders, become important. Organizations in this sector have professionals that must work together as a team in order to coordinate their activities on behalf of clients. Policies that are implemented by management, or the governing Board on the recommendation of the leader, must facilitate and be complementary to the activities of the professionals delivering the service. Professionals delivering the service must be aware of the organizational needs. Using the LMX theory one would conclude that each individual or group in the agency has power and the ability to influence in a reciprocal manner. It is up to the leader to enhance the relationship with others, maximizing the "in-group" and the corresponding influence that will result. In this way organizational effectiveness can be enhanced and services to clients maximized.

While results are encouraging, more research must be done to verify the validity of the findings. The theoretical development of the model indicates the "leader's need for efficiency and performance is one cause of the differential LMX relationships" (Dienisch and Liden, 1986). The question becomes, does the employee's higher productivity cause the in-group LMX, or does the LMX in-group cause the higher productivity of the employee?

3.5 SUMMARY

Leadership research looks at the impact that one individual has on another person in the direction that is desired by the first person. Power, authority and influence are the key concepts which are used to describe and understand the degree to which one person, e.g. the leader, can impact on the other person, e.g. the follower. Social exchange theory integrates these concepts into a theoretical framework which allows for an understanding of the reciprocal nature of the influence processes between two individuals. It recognizes, for example, that each agent has influence over the other based on being able to meet the other's needs. Power and authority are two terms that are used to describe the level or ability of one person to meet the

needs of the other in this exchange. Leader member exchange theory is a version of exchange theory that was specifically developed to conceptualize the differential relationship between leader and subordinates.

These theories are particularly important as a framework for describing and understanding transformational and transactional leadership. The influence which a leader exercises when using a transactional style reflects levels of formal authority, and power, which are often referred to as position power. The use of a transformational style is related to the use of personal power. Both of these styles can be understood through leader member exchange theory since the influence between leader and subordinate involves to a greater or lesser degree, the ability of one person to have an impact on the other person in a desired direction. The level of impact by the leader on a subordinate is determined by the leader's ability to use position or personal power in providing the subordinate with elements that he or she needs.

CHAPTER IV

4.0 MODELS OF LEADERSHIP

Over the years a number of approaches to studying leadership have been pursued. The major ones will be described, giving the reader an overview of the approach as well as the major issues.

4.1 THE TRAIT AND SKILL APPROACH

In the early years, many researchers believed effective leaders possessed certain traits and skills that set them apart from non-leaders or ineffective leaders. As a result, a considerable amount of research was devoted to establishing the key traits which determine effective leadership.

4.1.1 Stogdill's 1948 and 1974 Review

Stogdill conducted two reviews of the trait literature. In his 1948 review he looked at 124 studies that had been completed between 1904 and 1948. He found that a number of traits tended to distinguish leaders from non-leaders. These included education, social status,

intelligence, self-confidence, dominance, desire to excel, and interpersonal skills (Stogdill, 1974, p. 74-75). He found, however, that no particular trait was dominant or predictive of effective leadership in every situation. In fact, in studies that measured situational factors, the importance of a trait depended on a particular situation. The conclusion which Stogdill came to was, "A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits ...the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers" (Stogdill, 1948, p. 64). This review, together with the review by Bird (1940) and Jenkins (1947) who came to similar conclusions, has been frequently used as evidence to support the conclusion that leadership traits are entirely determined by the situation (Bass, 1981, p. 73).

In Stogdill's 1974 review, trait studies conducted from 1949 to 1970 were looked at. These studies tended to concentrate on the traits that were predictive of leaders, rather than comparing leaders with non-leaders. Based on his review he concluded "while the characteristics considered singly, hold little diagnostic or predictive significance...clusters

of characteristics differentiate leaders from followers and effective from ineffective leaders" (Stogdill, 1974, p. 81).

Based on Stogdill's 1948 and 1974 reviews, one can conclude that while there are clusters of traits which are relevant to leadership effectiveness, their relevance is dependent on the situation.

Bass (1981, p. 81) summarizes the general cluster of characteristics found to be indicative of leadership. He states, "The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness, and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and a sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence another's behaviour and a capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand."

While trait research appears to be somewhat limited in current research, there do appear to be some exceptions. Fiedler (1986) proposes a "cognitive resource

theory" where he attempts to explain the importance of intelligence in predicting leadership effectiveness. He indicates that intelligence, task ability and job-relevant knowledge cannot affect the performance of the organization or the group unless the leader a) directs the group, b) does so in an intelligent and knowledgeable manner, and c) the task requires the abilities the leader has available. Not only does it appear to explain how intelligence fits into more of a situational framework, but the theory also seems to have promise in explaining the appropriateness of directive versus participative leadership styles.

4.1.2 Assessment Centre Research

This overall, more focused research direction was stimulated by the apparent effectiveness of the assessment centre approach in choosing employees with leadership potential (Huck 1973). In one classic study conducted at American Telephone and Telegraph involving the assessment centre approach, it was found that 64% of the candidates predicted to reach middle management did so, compared with only 32% of the remainder reaching a similar position (Bray, Campbell and Grant, 1974). Another finding of the same study was that the chances of a person becoming a manager was greatly enhanced if a

favourable job situation existed where an individual's supervisor encouraged him and provided an opportunity for the individual to develop management skills. In a review of assessment centre findings, Dunette (1971) found agreement that the following six traits related to management success:

- 1) overall energy level;
- 2) organizing and planning skills;
- 3) interpersonal competence;
- 4) cognitive comprehension;
- 5) work-oriented motivation, and
- 6) personal control of feelings and resistance to stress.

4.1.3 Managerial Motivation

While the leader trait research is difficult to distinguish from motivational factors, motivation has also been a separate area of research. Miner (1978) identified six role prescriptions and required motivational patterns for a successful manager. These are:

- 1) A manager must be able to obtain support for his/her position at higher levels. He/she must have good relations with superiors and cannot have difficulties with authority figures.

- 2) A manager must be able to compete for resources, and power for him/herself and the group. He/she should enjoy competition.
- 3) A manager must be able to be assertive and take action when required.
- 4) A manager must be able to exercise power over employees and be willing to direct their behaviour. This requires, at times, using sanctions.
- 5) A manager must be willing to stand out from the group and take positions of high visibility. If a manager finds it difficult to be the focus of attention this will be difficult.
- 6) A manager must be able to meet the requirements of administrative detail and still get the other work done. A person must be willing to accomplish these tasks and ideally gain some satisfaction from them.

Miner developed the Miner Sentence Completion Scale (MSCS) to measure the managerial role motivation listed. While criticisms regarding its validity have been raised, its predictive ability for leader success when used by trained raters appears good (Bass, 1981, p. 402). The studies that have been done to verify Miner's theories have all been conducted in large organizations with traditional bureaucratic structures. When applied to smaller organizations, particularly those employing primarily professionals, the theory is not as powerful in predicting leadership (Miner, Rizzo, et al., 1974). This again shows the importance of the situational variable.

McClelland (1975), using a projective test called the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), looked at the importance of three motivational needs within leaders: the need for power, achievement and affiliation. He found that the need for achievement among owner/managers and other top executives correlated very highly with the growth rate of their organizations. He further discovered that within larger, established organizations the need for power was the dominant motive among managers and top executives.

While a certain amount of need for affiliation was necessary in a leader in order to express concern for the needs and feelings of other people which builds their motivation (Litwin and Stringer, 1966), the need for power and achievement was strongly present in effective leaders (Cummin, 1967; Donley and Winter, 1970).

4.1.4 Managerial Skills

Managerial skills are required in addition to the motivational component. The most common approach to identifying these skills was a three skill typology developed initially by Katz (1955) and further refined by Mann (1965), consisting of technical skills, human relations skills, and conceptual skills. It is proposed that the importance of each set of skills for a leader differs depending on the position the person occupies in the organizational hierarchy. Human relations skills were seen to be more important for lower level managers who interacted with line staff directly than for top level managers. On the other hand, it was more important for senior managers to have strong conceptual skills in order to do the higher level planning and decision making that was required of them. Middle management was found to need a balanced mix of all skill

areas (Katz and Kahn, 1978). It would also appear reasonable to expect that the primary skill area required would depend upon the sector within which the organization finds itself in. A chief executive in a non-profit, personal social service organization must have strong human relations skills in order to be able to work well with funders and a voluntary Board of Directors, and to interpret the mission of the organization to the community within which it serves.

4.2 THE BEHAVIOURAL APPROACH

When the limits of the trait approach became evident in the late 1940s, researchers began to turn their attention to what successful leaders did - the behavioural approach. Two major efforts that contributed to this direction were the Ohio State and the University of Michigan leadership studies.

4.2.1 The Ohio State Studies

The Ohio State group, under the direction of Hemphill, identified approximately 1800 items describing different aspects of leader behaviour. The items were eventually used to form the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire, (LBDQ), which isolated two

main patterns of behaviour among leaders: consideration and the initiating of structure. Consideration measured the extent to which a leader was concerned about the welfare and well-being of the members of the group. Initiating structure referred to the way in which a leader initiated activities in the group, organized them and defined the way work was to be accomplished. A leader who scored high on this dimension exercised a great deal of direction, and was very task-oriented and goal-directed (Fleischman and Peters, 1962).

While early studies were filled with promise, e.g. high consideration leaders had lower turnover, absenteeism, and better production in their units than did leaders who scored low in consideration (Fleischman and Harris, 1962; Skinner, 1969), subsequent analysis revealed non-conclusive results. Neither dimension was consistently related to group work performance, the categories were not mutually exclusive (i.e. some studies found that effective leaders score high on both dimensions) and it was difficult to determine whether the actions of the leader were responsible for performance or whether other contextual factors were more relevant to group performance (Kerr and Schriesheim, 1974; Korman, 1966; Stogdill, 1974).

4.2.2 University of Michigan Studies

At about the same time as the Ohio State group was carrying out its research, the University of Michigan was conducting similar leadership studies. In these studies an effort was made to distinguish effective leaders or supervisors from ineffective ones as measured by the productivity of the worker group. Similar to the Ohio State efforts, the Michigan group identified employee-centered leaders and production-centered leaders (Hunt, 1984, p. 8). Studies revealed that effective leaders were production-centered but not to the exclusion of concern for their employees' well-being.

Likert (1967) attempted to build on these studies, stating that the early studies, as well as his own subsequent research, demonstrated the effectiveness of certain management practices such as supportive behaviour toward subordinates, group method of supervision, high performance goals and linking pin functions which ensured that supervisors overlapped with other departments and levels of management. These he called "causal variables" which impacted on "intervening variables", e.g. motivation of employees, loyalty, group

cohesion, etc. These in turn impacted on "end result variables", e.g. high productivity and quality of work, low absenteeism, turnover and grievances (p. 29).

4.2.3 Bowers and Seashore

In 1966, Bowers and Seashore proposed four categories of leadership behaviour which were thought to contribute to managerial effectiveness. The categories, based on the Michigan and Ohio studies, included:

- 1) providing support for subordinates,
- 2) facilitating group interaction,
- 3) encouraging goal achievement, and
- 4) facilitating the work through planning, coordination, scheduling, etc.

While Bowers and Seashore (1966) presented research that supported the four-factor theory, as with the previous classifications, subsequent studies came up with contradictory results. It continued to be impossible to show the causal relationships which the behavioural models implied (Yukl, 1981, p. 119).

4.3 CONTINGENCY MODELS

The disillusionment with the behaviour models led, in the late 1960s, to another approach called the "contingency approach". The contingency models use leadership behaviour in combination with task and work group characteristics to predict outcomes (Hunt, 1984). The main contingency models which will be discussed in this section are:

- Fiedler's Contingency Theory (1967),
- House's Path-goal Theory (1971),
- Vroom and Yetton's Normative Decision Theory (1973),
- Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory (1977), and
- Yukl's Multiple Linkage Model (1981).

4.3.1 Fiedler's Contingency Model

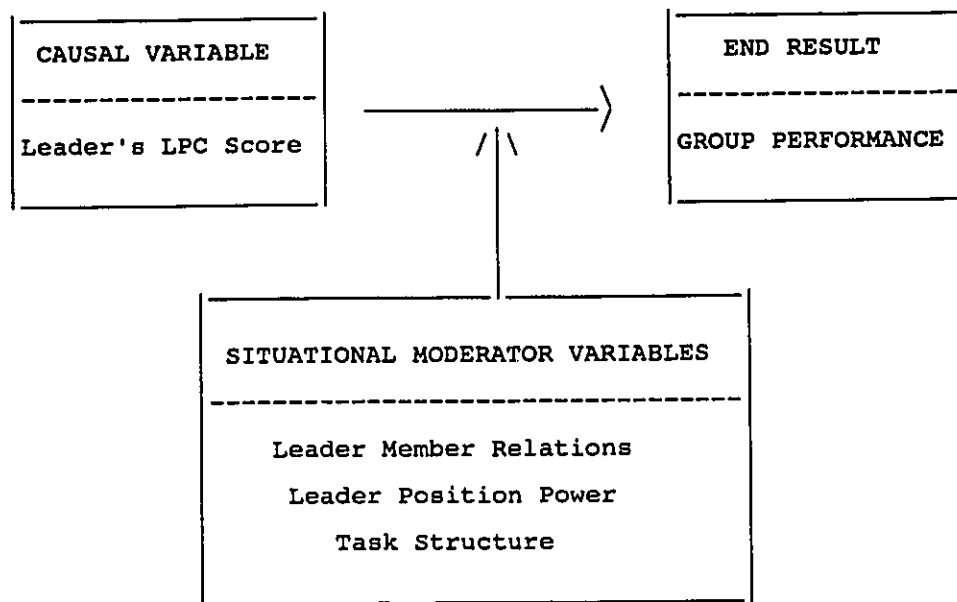
Fiedler's model is considered to be the grandfather of the contingency approach, being the most researched of any contingency approach on leadership (Bass, 1981, p. 341). Fiedler's approach looks at group effectiveness, rather than the individual worker. His theory states that if one knows the style of the leader (i.e. relationship- or task-oriented) and the situational

control or situational favourability the leader has, then one can predict the group performance or its level of effectiveness.

In order to measure leadership style, Fiedler developed a scale called the "Least Preferred Co-worker Scale" or "LPC scale" consisting of a series of bipolar items which are characteristics of people, e.g. pleasant - unpleasant; friendly - unfriendly; rejecting - accepting, etc.

Fiedler's Model can best be diagrammed in the following manner (cf. Figure 4: Fiedler's Causal Relationships).

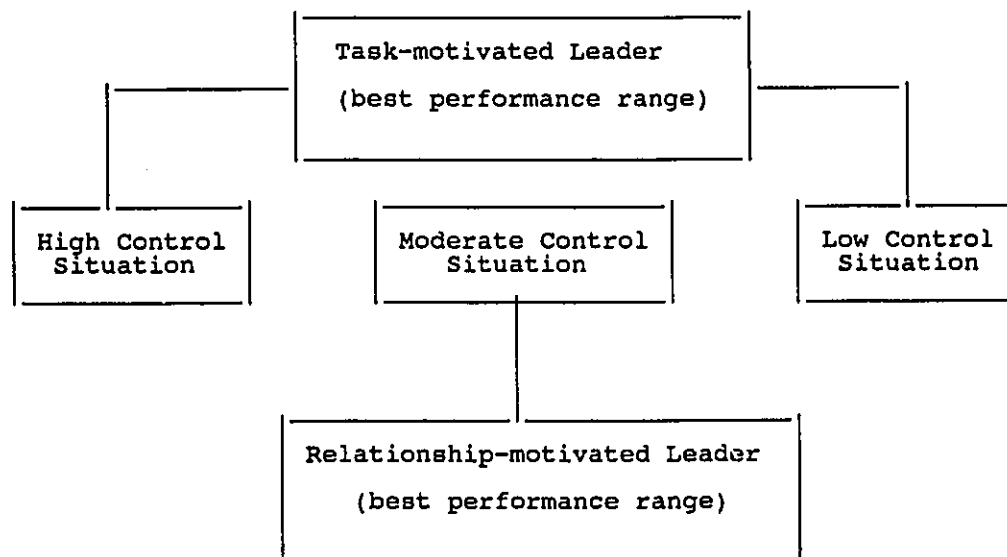
FIGURE 4: FIEDLER'S CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS



According to Fiedler (1978), relationship-oriented leaders do best in situations where there is moderate control. They perform badly in situations where there is low control since they experience stress which causes them to spend an inordinate amount of time on consultation or they fail to make the necessary unpopular decisions that are required to enhance group performance. High control situations are also not a good fit for these leaders. Relations in those cases tend to be good and the situation seems too easy for them, resulting in group members and the task being neglected.

Task-motivated leaders get a sense of achievement from meeting goals and are driven toward high performance, even in the absence of external rewards. In low control situations these leaders will work to develop the necessary structure to achieve the goals even if this results in group members becoming angry. In high control situations they can afford to relax and are experienced as pleasant and considerate by members of their group. These leaders are at their worst in moderate control situations since they concentrate solely on structuring the task and neglect the interpersonal needs of the group.

FIGURE 5: FIEDLER'S LEADER/GROUP PERFORMANCE MATCH



Adapted from Hunt (1984)

While there is some support for Fiedler's model, e.g. low LPC scores did coincide with initiating structure and task-oriented behaviour, and high LPC scores coincided with relations-oriented behaviour in a number of studies (Green, Nebeker and Boni, 1974; Gruenfeld, Rance and Weissenberg, 1969; Fox, 1974; Chemers and Skrzypek, 1972; Sashkin, 1972), other research has indicated the exact opposite in findings (Evans, 1973; Fiedler, O'Brien and Ilgen, 1969; Stinson, 1972; Graen, Orris and Alvarez, 1971).

Other criticisms include: confusion about what the LPC score really measures (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977, p. 23); the model attempts to predict but does not explain how a leader's LPC score actually impacts on group performance (Ashour, 1973); the weights assigned to the three situational variables for the situational control indicator have no specific rationale (Shiflet, 1973); the situational measures may not be entirely independent of the LPC scores since both LPC measure and the measure for leader-member relations were obtained from the leaders (Kerr and Harlan, 1973). In addition to these concerns there is the even larger issue of the impact of environmental factors, both on leader behaviour and group performance, which the model does not address. Depending on the specific environment,

leadership cannot always be dichotomized into task- and relationship-oriented dimensions as Fiedler supposes (Newcomer, 1985).

While Fiedler and Garcia (1987) attempt to address many of these concerns through their recent research and by updating their theory, e.g. introducing the cognitive resource theory which they admit has supporting data that is far from overwhelming (Fiedler and Garcia, 1987, p. 201), they continue to ignore many of the major concerns identified earlier (Neider, 1988).

4.3.2 House's Path-goal Theory

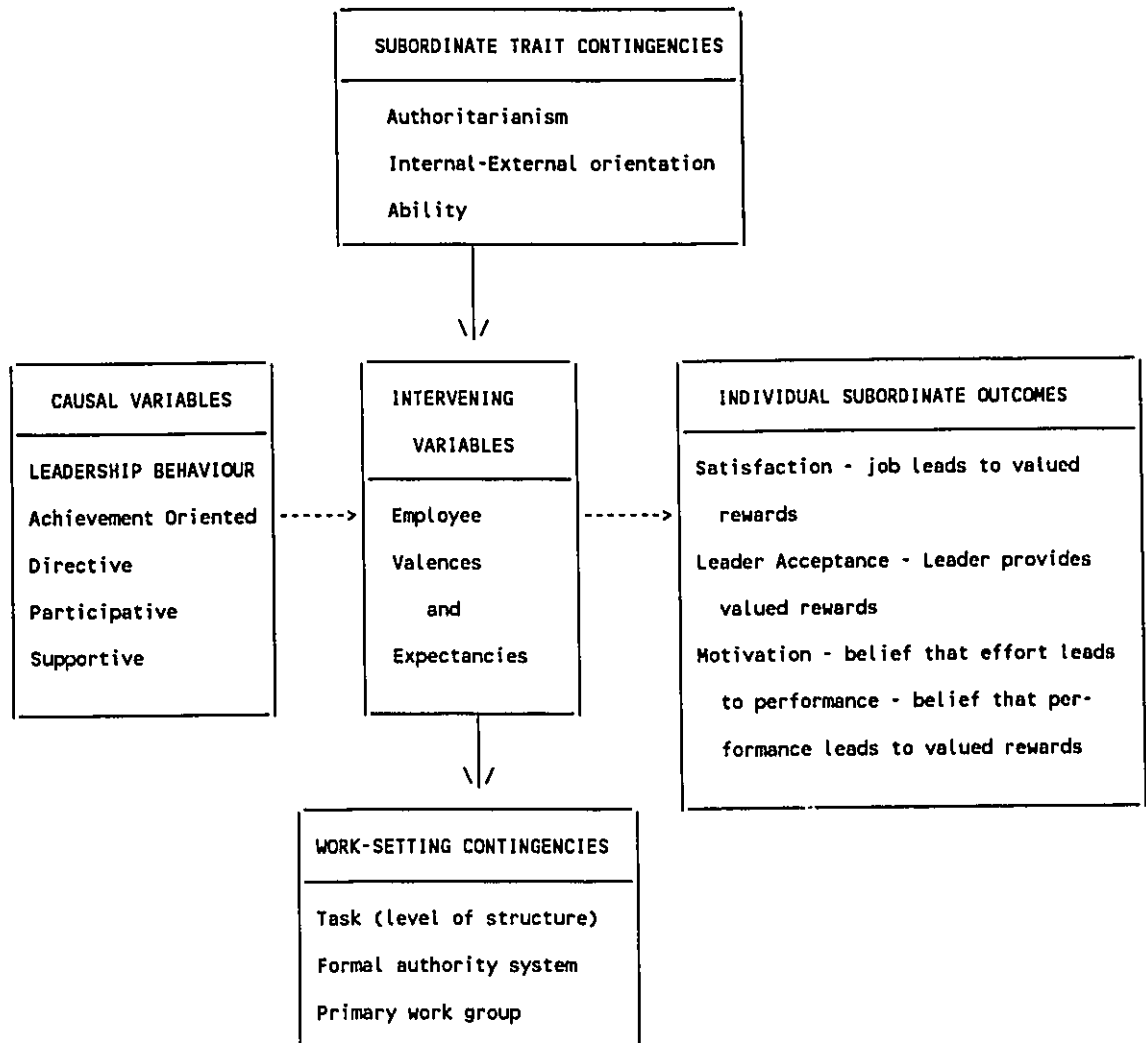
Path-goal theory began with expectancy theory as developed by Georgopolous, Mahoney and Jones (1957). The theory states that a worker consciously determines how much effort to devote to the job and that the amount of effort depends on the likelihood the worker sees in the effort leading to the successful completion of the tasks. This perceived "likelihood" is referred to as the worker's "effort-performance expectancy". The worker further expects that successful completion will lead to personal rewards (e.g. increased pay, promotions, recognition etc.). The reinforcement strength of each reward is referred to as its "valence".

Sanctions (e.g. layoffs, reprimands, accidents, etc.) are also seen as motivators for performance and have "valences". The theory was further developed by M. G. Evans (1970) and House (1971). House's theory will be described as it is a popular example of the path-goal approach (Hunt, 1984; Hellriegel and Slocum, 1979; Yukl, 1981; Howell, 1986).

While Fiedler's model states that effective leadership is dependent on an appropriate match between leadership style and situational control, House's approach rests on the belief that the leader's key function is to clarify for employees the paths by which high performance can be reached. High performance in turn leads to rewards that are valued by the employees. This is where the title "path-goal" comes from. The approach can be modelled in the following way (cf. Figure 6: House's Path-goal Model of Leadership).

FIGURE 6: HOUSE'S PATH-GOAL MODEL OF LEADERSHIP

(Adapted from Osborn, Hunt, and Jauch, 1980)



Attempts at validation of the path-goal theory have achieved mixed results (Filley, House and Kerr, 1976; House and Mitchell, 1974; Schriesheim and Von Glinow, 1977). More support is found for the effect leadership behaviour has on employee satisfaction than the effect it has on subordinate motivation and performance (Yukl, 1981). A study by Downey, Sheridan and Slocum, Jr., (1975) found that while leader supportive behaviour related significantly to employee satisfaction, the results were true in both structured and unstructured situations. This is consistent with other studies as well (Johns, 1978; Miles and Petty, 1977; Dellva, Teaf, and McElroy, 1985).

One important employee characteristic that appears relevant, particularly in a personal social service agency, is the level of professionalization. A study by Howell and Dorfman (1986) found that professionals differed from non-professionals in a community hospital. Intrinsically satisfying work task and organizational rewards were strong substitutes for leader support with professionals, resulting in employee satisfaction. Worker professionalism is thus deemed to be an important moderating variable for leadership research.

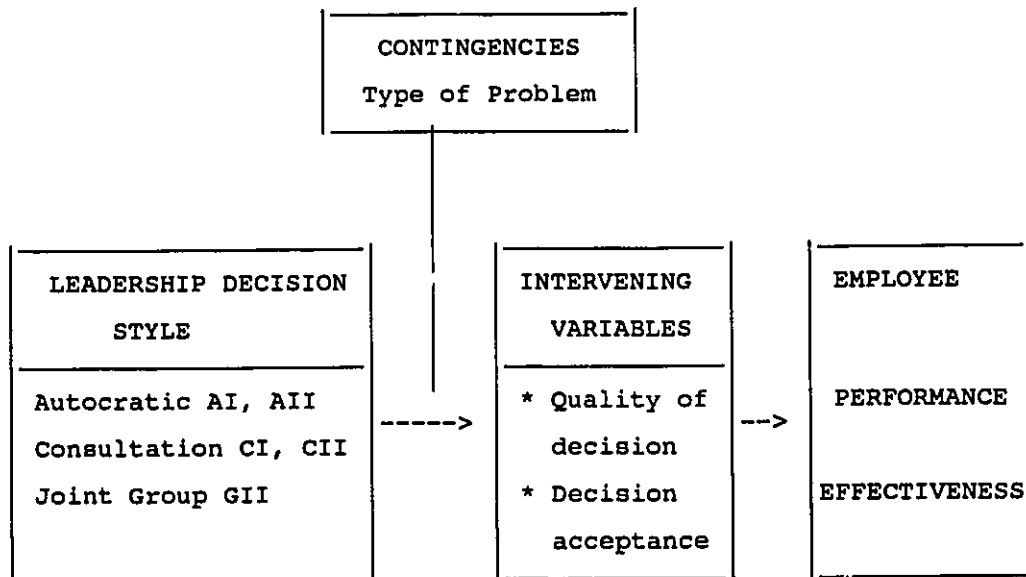
A number of criticisms have been leveled at the theory and the validation research. Many of the studies are deemed to have serious methodological shortcomings (Schriesheim and Kerr, 1977). These include the failure to measure employee expectancies and valences, and testing only a small part of the model to the exclusion of the remainder (Yukl, 1981, p. 153). Due to the relatively recent development of the model it will be some time before all aspects of it have been explored.

4.3.3 Vroom-Yetton Model

This model is designed to assist a leader through a rational process of choosing an appropriate style of decision making to fit the situation. The Vroom-Yetton model is concerned with how a leader's behaviour impacts on the quality of a decision as well as employee acceptance of the decision. It is based on the earlier work of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) who stated that the way in which a leader makes a decision is dependent on forces in the leader, the situation and the employees. Maier (1963) indicated that before a leader chose a particular process for making a decision, he/she needed to determine both the impact of the quality of the decision and the acceptance of the decision by employees.

Vroom-Yetton built on these ideas. The model can be diagrammed in the following way (cf. Figure 7: Vroom-Yetton Decision Making Model).

FIGURE 7: VROOM-YETTON DECISION MAKING MODEL



"Decision acceptance" is the degree of employee commitment to implementing a decision effectively. In situations where a leader has a great deal of personal and position power, employees will be committed to a decision if it is made in an authoritative manner.

In other situations, however, this style will result in alienation and resentment. Here a greater level of employee participation will be required to develop ownership and commitment to the decision. "Decision quality" refers to objective criteria by which a decision can be judged, to determine if it was a good or bad decision, e.g. cost efficient, results in higher effectiveness, etc. When decision quality is important and the employees possess information which would enhance the quality of the final decision, consultative processes are more effective than autocratic styles.

The model identifies five decision making processes that a leader can use - two autocratic styles (AI, AII), two consultation styles (CI, CII), and one joint group/leader style (GII). (See Appendix I: Vroom-Yetton Decision Making Processes).

The type of decision making process used is contingent upon the characteristics of the problem. By answering a series of seven questions through a decision tree format, the leader can determine which of the five decision styles is most appropriate for effective

employee performance. The process is illustrated in The Vroom-Yetton Decision Process Flow Chart. (See Appendix II: The Vroom-Yetton Decision Process Flow Chart).

The validation process of the Vroom-Yetton model is still in its early stages but appears promising. Vroom and Jago (1978) did a study where managers were asked to list a good decision and a bad decision which they had made recently. By analyzing the conditions under which they were made and the results obtained, these decisions could be compared with the preferred method suggested by the model. For decisions judged to be successful, 68 percent were made using the process recommended by the model. Only 22 percent of the unsuccessful decisions were made according to the preferred method outlined by the model. While further validation of the model must take place, the initial indicators are that it is a useful framework.

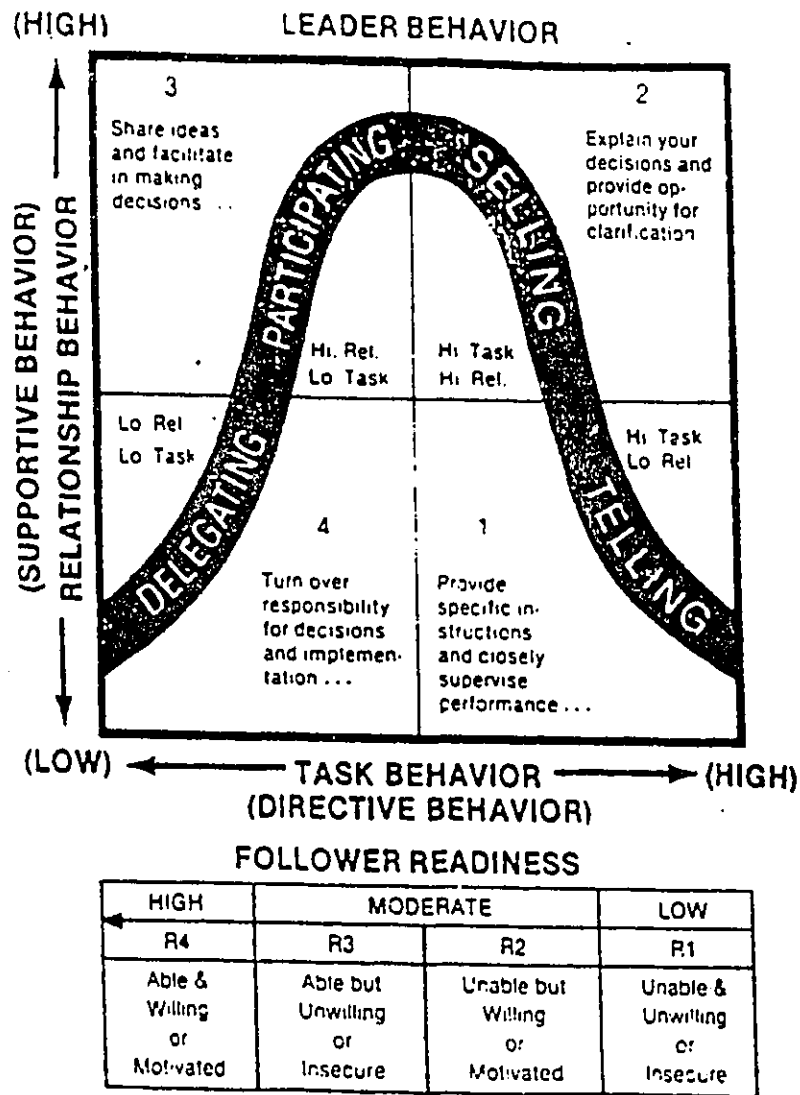
4.3.4 Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Model

The situational leadership model is an extension of the Blake and Mouton (1964) Managerial Grid. It is designed to explain what other factors enter into a leader's decision to use either relationship or task behaviour in order to achieve effective performance.

Similar to other models, two categories of leader behaviour are identified: task behaviour (i.e. the leader organizing and defining the roles of followers, structuring tasks, etc.) and relationship behaviour, (i.e. the leader establishing personal relationships with the group, providing support, communicating, etc.).

The situational moderator in the model is employee maturity, which is defined as "the capacity to set high but attainable goals (achievement motivation), willingness to take responsibility, and education and/or experience" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 161). An employee's maturity is judged in relationship to each task separately. More recently Hersey has renamed maturity level as "follower readiness", with "readiness" being defined as the ability of an employee, i.e. the knowledge, experience and skill that a group or individual brings to a task, and the willingness of an employee, i.e. the confidence, commitment and motivation to accomplish a task (Hersey, 1984, p. 46). The model can be illustrated in the following manner (cf. Figure 8: Hersey, the Situational Leader, 1984).

FIGURE 8: HERSEY, THE SITUATIONAL LEADER, 1984 (p. 63)



There are four levels of follower readiness, moving from a low readiness of R1 to a high readiness of R4. Blanchard and Hersey feel that the leader can also encourage the employee to mature to the highest level through developmental interventions. Here the leader delegates more responsibility to an employee, encouraging and praising him/her when goals have been met in order to progress the employee to the next level of maturity.

The model has some logical attraction including being easily understood and applied on a day-to-day basis by leaders, as well as providing a conceptual framework within which employees can be viewed in a differential manner. There are, at the same time, some serious problems with it. Hersey and Blanchard have not sought to validate the model, stating that they can explain the elements on the basis of earlier studies involving task- and relationship-oriented behaviour (Yukl, 1981). As has been noted, however, the studies validating these constructs have been non-conclusive at best and contradictory at worst. Furthermore, none of the earlier models have defined employee readiness or maturity in a similar manner, making comparisons across models extremely difficult. Finally, the number of situational variables is extremely limited as are the

leadership behaviours. This greatly limits the usefulness of the model in its application and makes it conceptually flawed.

4.3.5 Yukl's Multiple Linkage Model

Multiple linkage model is a contingency approach to leadership that wants to incorporate a multiple set of situational variables and intervening variables into one model (Yukl, 1981). The intervening variables, i.e. ones that are influenced by leadership and the situation before they in turn affect outcome variables, are group and individual characteristics (cf. Figure 9: Causal Relationships in the Multiple Linkage Model, Yukl, 1981).

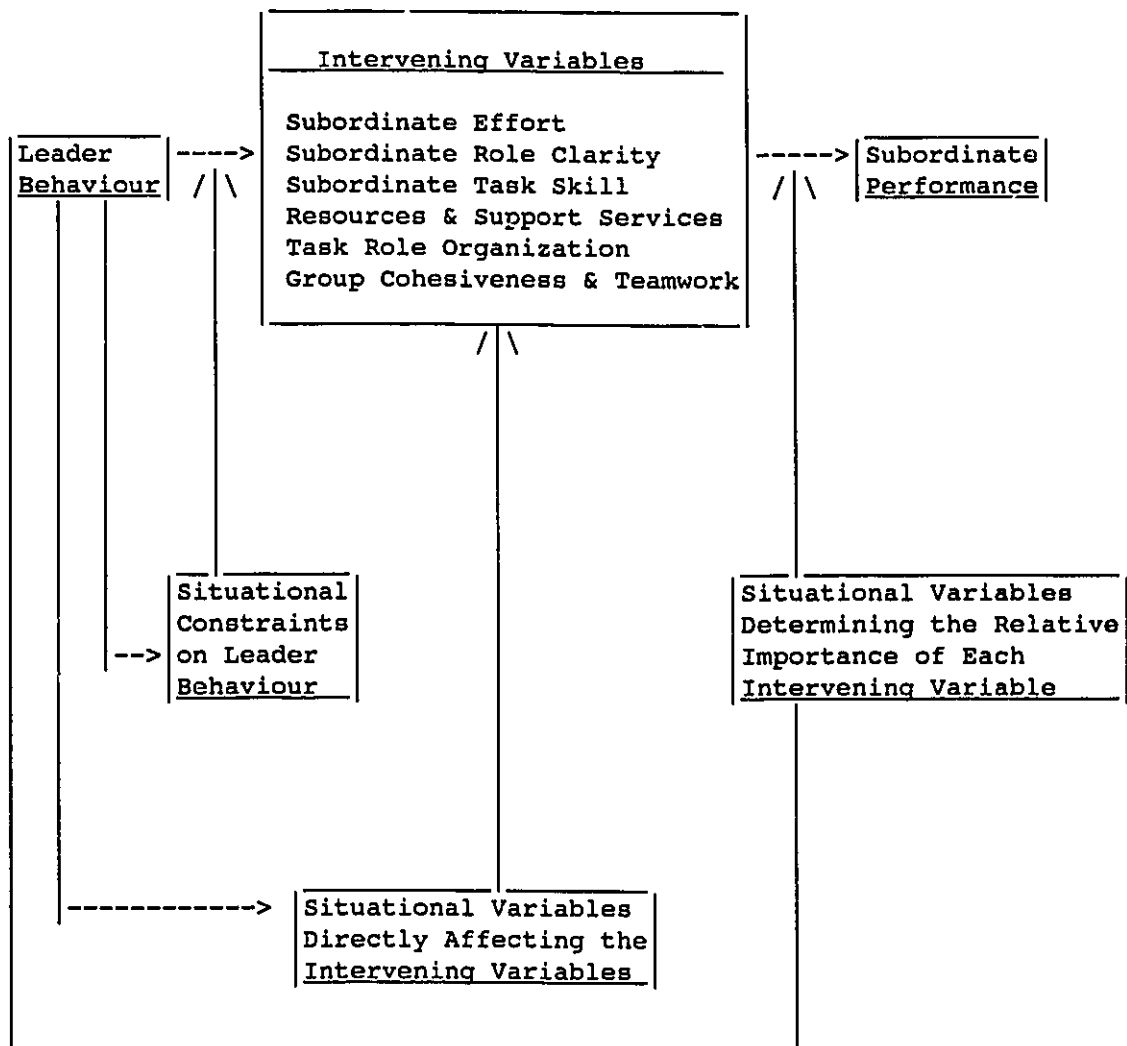
They include the following:

- 1) Subordinate effort: the extent to which employees make an effort to attain a high level of performance.
- 2) Subordinate role clarity: the extent to which the employee understands the job duties and responsibilities.

- 3) Subordinate task skills: the extent to which employees have the necessary experience, training and skills to do the job.
- 4) Resources and support services: the extent to which employees can get tools, supplies and support services for the job.
- 5) Task-role organization: the extent to which the work unit is effectively organized, avoiding delays, duplication etc.
- 6) Group cohesiveness and teamwork: the extent to which subordinates get along well with each other, and are helpful, friendly, etc.
- 7) Leader-subordinate relations: the extent to which employees get along well with their leader and are satisfied with him/her.

**FIGURE 9: CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS IN THE MULTIPLE
LINKAGE MODEL**

(Yukl, 1981, p. 161)



Multiple linkage theory is based on the premise that a leader's effectiveness depends on his/her ability to assess correctly and intervene appropriately to change the deficient intervening variables. The importance of the intervening variables and the range of options available to the leader depend upon the situational variables. A second premise of the theory is that, over a longer time frame, a leader can introduce strategies that will impact on the situational variables creating a more positive context. These strategies include long-term planning, policy setting, developing better rapport with superiors, changing organizational structure, etc.

The multiple linkage theory shares certain similarities with the path-goal approach. Both models see the role of the leader as being to correct difficulties in the intervening variables in order that employees can achieve the goals that have been set for them. Both theories deal with some of the same variables and consider the impact of leader behaviour on employee performance. Path-goal theory, however, looks at outcomes in terms of employee motivation and satisfaction. Multiple linkage model, on the other hand, treats motivation and satisfaction as intervening variables and looks at performance as final outcomes.

Overall, while there are many similarities, the major contribution of the multiple linkage model is to incorporate a great many more variables into the model than the path-goal approach. While this results in a better conceptual model, it becomes more difficult to test. Like some of the other models discussed, research has not been done to validate it, so it is not possible to make a judgment on its usefulness.

4.3.6 Analysis of the Contingency Approach

The contingency approach, through the various models, has highlighted some of the complexity of the task of leadership and has identified some of the variables involved in leadership. It has brought home the message that how an effective leader responds is dependent on the situation. While some of the research has verified parts of models, on balance the verdict is non-conclusive about the validity of specific models. As can be seen from the summary, with certain of the newer models, research still needs to be done to determine their value (cf. Figure 10: Summary of Situational Models).

FIGURE 10: SUMMARY OF SITUATIONAL MODELS

Situational Theory of Leadership	Variables included in Models					Validation	
	Leader Traits	Leader Behaviour	Situational Variables	Intervening Variables	Effectiveness Indicator	Empirical Tests	Results
Fiedler's Contingency Theory	LPC	None	Task Structure L-M Relations Position Power	None Explicit	Group Performance	Many Studies	Mixed & Incon- clusive
House's Path-Goal Theory	None	Directive Achievement Supportive Partici- pative	Work Setting Task Autonomy System Primary Work Grp Subord. Traits	Employee Valences & Expecta- tions	Subordinate - Satisfaction - Motivation - Leader Acceptance	Many Studies	Mixed & Incon- clusive
Vroom & Yetton Normative Theory	None	Decision Styles: Autocratic Consultat'n Joint Group	Aspects Related to Decision- Making Series of Questions	Decision Acceptance Decision Quality	Employee Commitment to the Decision	Few Direct Tests	Mixed & Incon- clusive
Hersey & Blanchard Model	None	Task- Oriented Relat'nship Oriented	Subordinate Maturity	None	Employee Performance	None	
Yukl's Multiple Linkage Theory	None	Many Aspects	Many Aspects	Many Aspects	Employee Performance	None	

In recent years some scholars have also criticized the overall approach as wanting. Criticisms have included that the current contingency approaches are reductionistic, and do not include all the components of the leadership process (McCall and Lombardo, 1978; Howell, 1986). Mintzberg (1973), and Weick (1978), indicate the task of leadership involves variety, complexity and fragmentation. Furthermore, leaders are influenced by the overall environment within which they operate, which includes the larger society, labour unions, technology, and the history of the organization. These elements are not taken into account adequately in the contingency approach (McCall and Lombardo, 1978).

As a result of these criticisms, other approaches are being taken in the study of leadership. Certain researchers are recognizing the reciprocal relationship and mutual influence that is exerted between leader and follower (Fulk and Cummings, 1984; Wofford and Srinivafan, 1983; Zahn and Wolf, 1981) and are building on the vertical dyad linkage theory as developed by Graen and his associates (Graen and Cashman, 1975).

Another group of researchers has broadened the focus beyond the leader-follower relationship to include the larger social network of peers, superiors and subordinates within which the leader finds himself/herself (Gast, 1984; Salancik, Calder, Rowland, Leblebici and Conway, 1975; Stewart, 1982; Tsui, 1984). Tsui (1984) found that in order to be effective, a leader needs to be responsive to multiple constituents' role expectations. Similarly, Gast (1984) states that while certain behaviours allow leaders to increase their authority and personal power in order to influence others, their actions are restricted by social and political processes, organizational policies, resource constraints, etc.

Still other research has focused on what is referred to as "second generation contingency model" which includes both macro and micro environmental variables. Hunt (1984) describes his multiple influence model stating that environmental complexity (factors outside the work unit), contextual complexity (size and technology), and structural complexity (need for control and coordination) affect both the required leadership behaviour (formal demands of organization) and discretionary leader behaviour (e.g. careful management of

rewards, network development, etc.). These three factors are also seen to affect work unit performance and worker satisfaction.

In the minds of some, however, a distinct paradigm shift is needed in order to really understand leadership (Hunt, 1984). One such radical perspective is the view that leadership is nothing more than a follower's need to attribute certain organizational phenomena, whether good or bad, to a leader (Calder, 1977; Lord and Smith, 1983; McElroy, 1982). Meindl, Ehrlich, and Dukerich (1985, 1987) have argued that in order for followers to understand important but causally ambiguous organizational events they attribute inordinate levels of control and influence to leaders. This view of leadership is seen as being a part of the culture and leads to a "romanticized" perspective on leadership.

This attributional model of leadership, however, needs to be reconciled to recent research that indicates that leadership does have a substantial impact on organizational performance. In one study of 193 manufacturing organizations over a 19-year span, it was reported that leadership accounted for more variance in organizational performance than did several other environmental or organizational factors (Weiner and

Mahoney, 1981). Smith, Carson, and Alexander (1984) also showed some longitudinal data that indicated that effective leaders have a positive impact on organizational performance. Through the development of these newer directions has come the current interest in the study of "transformational" or "charismatic" leadership.

4.4 CHARISMATIC/TRANSFORMATIONAL MODELS

In his book "Leadership" (1978), James McGregor Burns identified two types of political leadership. One was called "transactional" where the leader initiates the contact with the follower for the purpose of exchanging something that each values. The other form of leadership was called "transformational". This type of leadership involves shifting the beliefs, the needs, and the values of followers. According to Burns "the result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents" (Burns, 1978, p. 4).

Bass took Burns' ideas and applied them to organizational management. He stated that transactional leaders are primarily concerned about improving or

maintaining the quantity and quality of production. Transformational leaders, on the other hand, are interested in raising colleagues, subordinates, followers, clients, or constituents, to a greater awareness about the issues of consequence. This heightening of awareness, he states, requires a leader with vision, self-confidence, and inner strength to argue successfully for what he/she sees as good and right, not for what is popular or is acceptable" (Bass, 1985, p. 17). (Bass' work will be expanded on later in this section.)

Bennis and Nanus (1985), who studied a number of chief executive officers and successful innovative leaders, found that "the capacity to relate a compelling image of a desired state of affairs" which brings about the involvement and empowerment of followers is a key characteristic of transformational leadership (p. 33). A major component constituting transformational leadership is charisma (Bass, 1985). Charisma and charismatic leadership is also the subject of research as a factor by itself.

4.4.1 House's Theory of Charismatic Leadership

House (1977) developed a systematic way of looking at charismatic leadership. He defines charismatic leaders as those "who by the force of their personal abilities are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on followers." He then goes on to identify a number of propositions that identify leader traits, behaviours, and situational conditions. These propositions include:

- 1) Charismatic leaders have high levels of self-confidence, conviction in their own beliefs, and a strong need to influence people. This self-confidence and the strong convictions increase the likelihood that followers will trust the leader's judgment and be influenced.
- 2) Charismatic leaders are involved in image-making, i.e. they engage in behaviours that create the impression for followers that the leader is successful. This increases the followers' trust of the leader's judgment and increases the likelihood of their accepting direction from the leader.

- 3) Charismatic leaders articulate ideological goals for subordinates. By providing a meaningful vision of what the future could be like, charismatic leaders give the work more meaning, and inspire enthusiasm and excitement among followers. The end result is that followers have a greater emotional involvement in the purpose of the group and a higher commitment to the group goals.
- 4) The work must lend itself to being defined in ideological and value terms with which followers can identify. Some work has low potential to be defined in these terms and consequently is unlikely to experience a charismatic leader.
- 5) Charismatic leaders are likely to use role modelling as a way of shaping a follower's behaviour. This involves changing perceptions, values, beliefs and responses in followers. By admiring a leader and identifying with him/her, followers are likely to imitate his/her behaviour, beliefs and values. This allows a leader to influence an employee's job satisfaction and motivation.

- 6) Charismatic leaders are able to communicate high expectations for performance and, at the same time, express confidence in a person's ability. In these situations followers will commit to the goals, as long as they perceive the goals to be attainable and reasonable. The expression of confidence by a highly admired leader will tend to boost a follower's self-esteem and guide him/her to a belief that success is possible.
- 7) Charismatic leaders are more likely to behave in ways that arouse motives relevant to the accomplishment of the group's mission. For example, the need for achievement is important in tasks that are complex and challenging, requiring risk-taking, personal responsibility and persistence. The motivation for power is important in tasks that require competitiveness, persuasiveness and aggression. The motivation for affiliation is relevant for tasks requiring cooperation, teamwork and mutual support among the members. These motives can be aroused by giving inspirational

talks appealing to values and referring to such things as team loyalty, being the best, defeating the enemy, etc.

Research evidence, while limited, appears to be supportive of the conclusion that charismatic leadership can be distinguished from non-charismatic leadership and that there is a distinguishable difference in the impact charismatic leaders have on followers, from non-charismatic leaders.

4.4.2 Bass' Theory of Transformational Leadership

Bass (1985) has developed the concept of transformational leadership style as distinct from transactional leadership factors. He states that while transactional leaders contribute to subordinates' confidence, it is primarily linked to believing in their ability to perform a particular task. Transactional leaders work from a contingent reinforcement model where they recognize subordinates' needs and help them clarify how those needs can be met. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, motivates followers to strive for higher order goals rather than pursue their immediate interests. Transformational leaders encourage followers to aim for self-actualization, i.e. reaching one's

potential. In this way subordinates receive self-reinforcement, resulting in higher effort than if they were responding to external rewards.

In developing the theory, Bass built on Burns' (1978) work. After describing transformational and transactional leadership to senior executives, Bass asked them to describe the specific characteristics of leaders they had known which fit these styles. Based on their feedback and a literature review, he identified 140 items which were rated by a trained panel as transformational, transactional, or not sure. A factor analysis identified four factors that made up each type of leadership. This resulted in a 79-item questionnaire which confirmed the existence of these factors and their ability to be measured. Identical factors have emerged in an independent factor analysis of questionnaires given to 360 managers in industry (Avolio and Bass, 1985).

The four transactional factors were contingent reward, management by exception-active, management by exception-passive, and laissez-faire. Contingent reward accounted for 6.3% of the variance and referred to the leader instructing subordinates in what to do to attain their desired rewards. Management by exception-active

was the process of the leader monitoring subordinate performance and providing corrective feedback when standards were not met. Management by exception-passive referred to the leader allowing subordinates to carry out their duties without a conscious effort to monitor performance, and intervening only when problems became obvious. Laissez-faire was the style where the leader allowed subordinates to carry on without the leader's intervention no matter what problems developed. The last three factors explain approximately 3% of the variance of transactional leadership.

The four transformational factors were identified as charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Charisma and inspiration accounted for 65% of the variance. Charisma referred to the leader's ability to effectively articulate a vision that followers could identify with, develop higher order goals, and instill respect for, faith in, and loyalty to the leader. Inspiration was the ability to use language to motivate followers to go beyond their own self-interests, and to instill higher order values in them. Intellectual stimulation accounted for 6% of the variance and was the leader's ability to encourage and develop the subordinate's ability to understand and solve problems in creative and novel

ways. Individualized consideration accounted for 6% of the variation and referred to the leader's ability to treat each subordinate as an individual with care and concern (Bass, 1985).

When PSSOs, their environments, their functions and the type of workers employed are considered, transformational leadership appears to be very relevant. Workers are expected to place themselves in a relationship with clients who are not always appreciative or responsive to the efforts of the worker. Inspiration and charisma are factors that may be able to energize workers. In this way the workers transcend their own needs and feelings and commit themselves to the altruistic goal of helping others.

In difficult situations when traditional approaches do not provide solutions to client or organizational problems, workers can benefit from re-framing problems and looking at innovative solutions. The workers in PSSOs are highly educated and, in order to be fulfilled, require intellectual stimulation and challenges. When an employee is called upon day after day to provide affirmation and emotional support to clients, the employee must also receive emotional support. Individual consideration can be a factor by which the

leader provides the care and concern for subordinates that allows subordinates to feel emotionally strengthened, confident, and worthwhile, perceiving that they and their work is recognized and appreciated.

Bass argues that while transactional and transformational leaders are two distinct types, characteristics of both can be found to differing degrees in the same person. He further identifies that transactional leadership (TAL) style can be effective but that transformational leadership (TFL) is more effective resulting in performance beyond expectations. TAL and TFL are therefore independent leadership factors existing in differing degrees within the same leader.

Bass (1985, p. 54) further states that a key difference between his theory and House's is that while House concentrates more on the observable aspects of charisma, Bass attempts to emphasize the emotional components. Specifically, he feels that the use of colourful, persuasive language, symbols and imagery is critical in this phenomenon. In this way, transformational leaders appeal to the emotions and motivations of their followers. A second difference is Bass' identifying charisma as but one component of the transformational leader.

While there is interest by others in looking at enhancing Bass' theory, the work has been mainly conceptual and not grounded in empirical research (Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Tichy and Devanna, 1986). It would appear that on the basis of House and Bass, transformational or charismatic leadership is a construct that can be identified as different from transactional leadership, however, much more research is required.

A number of questions need to be explored in this area including: what are the required characteristics of the followers in order to have charismatic leadership be effective; what are the larger environmental factors that encourage the development of charismatic leaders; what factors within an organization sustain charismatic leadership; can charisma be transferred from one leader to another; can charisma or transformational leadership be transferred by the leader from one organization to another; what are the functional and dysfunctional consequences of charismatic leadership both for individuals and organizations; is charismatic leadership simply another name for referent or personal power; can this style of leadership be taught; are transformational and transactional leadership independent or bipolar? By

exploring these and similar questions the phenomenon can be better analyzed to determine the impact it can make on future leadership knowledge.

4.5 SUMMARY

The study of leadership has given practitioners considerable insight into the elements that make for effectiveness. At the same time the field is filled with contradictory, or non-conclusive findings. The reasons for the current situation are many, but include inadequate models, lack of a coordinated approach to the study of leadership, confusion of definitions, poor research methodologies, an inability to apply the results of many laboratory experiments to the real world, and a lack of quality field experiments. What is particularly striking is the absence of studies directly applicable to personal social service organizations. Nevertheless, progress has taken place.

The trait approach appears not to have been a very productive area of research and yet, taken in context, it has contributed as well. Effective managers in large organizations tend to have a high need for power and achievement, and a somewhat lower need for affiliation. They also tend to have a high sense of self-esteem,

energy, ability to withstand stress, and intelligence, and get along well with authority figures. A combination of technical skills, conceptual skills and human relation skills are necessary, but the importance of each area varies on the basis of the context. Assessment centre research has shown that it is possible in certain situations to predict the probability of an employee moving into a management position.

While researchers recognize two major leadership behaviour categories - attention to task and attention to people, - the relative importance of each varies greatly depending on the context. Recognition is now being given to other necessary leadership behaviours including attention to the external environment. Probably the most promising way of incorporating this area of research is to specifically define the discrete leader behaviours and test the relevance to particular situations.

Contingency approaches have contributed to our understanding that leadership effectiveness needs to be applied to a particular context, taking into account a range of variables. The difficulties, however, of making sense of various approaches, have been many. As was seen in the summary chart the result of verifying

research for the various models is either non-conclusive or non-existent. Without the research, it is difficult to determine the relevance of specific models. While contingency models imply a certain uni-directionality of impact, the reality is more multi-directional with all variables interacting. This makes it difficult to do research that implies causation.

The limitations with the various directions have led us to a number of radically different approaches. These have included second generation contingency models, attribution thinking, and more recently, a renewed interest in charismatic and transformational leadership. The most promising of these directions may very well be transformational leadership, which incorporates elements of transactional leadership as well as charismatic leadership.

As future directions are pursued there is a great need to develop a macro model of leadership which will allow researchers to test various parts of the model of interest to them, but at the same time clearly reflect how their research fits into the overall model. In this way it may be possible to build a knowledge base which contributes to a unified theory of leadership. In order to be relevant, the model needs to have the capability

of being applied to a variety of contexts. Special attention must also be given to the quality of research being done. Appropriate research must be designed that pays special attention to methodology, emphasizing longer term studies, larger sample sizes, and better instruments.

Considering the characteristics of PSSOs, (i.e. high stress environments, financial difficulties, high consumer demand, highly professionalized workers, highly unionized, expectations for employees to go above and beyond their job descriptions, and value-laden activities), charismatic or transformational leadership may be particularly appropriate in this sector.

CHAPTER V

5.0 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

In the late 1970s, a new approach to executive type leadership was identified that has significantly advanced the field (House and Singh, 1987; O'Reilly, 1991). While there are variations of the approach, these theories all use inspirational, visionary, and symbolic behaviour (House, 1977; Burns 1978; Bass, 1985; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Tichy and Devanna, 1986; Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Sashkin, 1988). The central attribute that is ascribed to the leader in these theories is charisma.

Charismatic leaders, it is argued, have quantitatively greater and qualitatively different effects on subordinates than do non-charismatics. These leaders motivate followers to make personal sacrifices in the interest of some mission and to perform above and beyond the call of duty. Followers become less motivated by self-interest and more motivated to serve the interest of the larger organization (House, Spangler, and Woycke, 1991). Berlew (1974) describes the results of this leadership as "organizational excitement". House (1977)

calls it "charismatic leadership", while Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) expand the concept and refer to it as "transformational leadership".

5.1 RECENT STUDIES RELEVANT TO EXECUTIVE LEADERSHIP

Numerous recent studies have been conducted in this area with encouraging results.

5.1.1 Case Studies

Case studies have been conducted to examine the relationship between leader and subordinate, the transferability of charisma across contexts by the same leader and the routinization of charisma in the same organization after the original charismatic leader is no longer involved.

Charisma and Leader/Subordinate Relationships

House, Spangler and Woycke (1991) examined charismatic leadership by doing an analysis of Canadian and American heads of state. They classified prominent leaders as charismatic, non-charismatic and equivocal based on historical literature, judgments made by historians, cabinet documents, and diaries. The unit of

analysis was the relationship between the leader and a specific subordinate, and a particularly critical incident. Results suggest that charismatic leaders exhibited greater self-confidence, higher performance expectations, and more positive consideration for followers as compared to non-charismatic leaders. Furthermore, followers of charismatic leaders had higher obedience and trust in their leader, made more positive statements about their mission and their situation, and felt more self-confident.

An interesting finding was that followers of charismatic leaders had both greater negative and positive regard for their leaders than did followers of non-charismatic leaders. A number of explanations may be offered for this finding. On the one hand, it may be that charismatic leaders tend to polarize followers, generating either a strong liking for the person or an almost opposite disliking for the individual if the values, beliefs, and mission is antithetical to the follower's thinking. Another explanation may be that a charismatic leader exhibits behaviours on a selective basis and forms differential relationships with subordinates. Consequently, similar to the "in-group/out-group" concept of Graen and Cashman (1975), leaders may be charismatic with their trusted

followers, creating positive feelings, and non-charismatic toward the "out-group", creating neutral or negative feelings in them.

Charisma and the Transforming Process

Roberts (1985), using interviews with key participants, as well as direct observations of the leader, conducted an in-depth analysis of the "transforming" leadership process. The leader, a newly-appointed superintendent of a school district, was in office for a two-year period, at the beginning of which the school district found itself in a financial and educational crisis. It was concluded that six elements made up transforming leadership in this situation:

a crisis; a clear statement of the school district's mission; a vision emanating from the mission; an ad hoc structure that allowed the leader exposure to a wide range of relevant people; a participative process involving a broad group of involved people; and a confident and skillful leader as change agent.

The results reported were:

reaching wide consensus on budget reductions; a dramatic increase in innovative ideas from staff; a wide-based commitment to the organization (alignment); a bond between individuals in the organization based on mutual respect and caring (attunement); and a willingness to participate and work together (energy and empowerment).

The researcher reports that the superintendent's charisma was a result of the school district's successful response to the financial crisis. Contrary to Burns' (1978) and Bass' (1985) claim that the transformational process is dependent on the charisma of the leader, Roberts claims that the transformational process is due to the successful response to a crisis which required the collective action of all involved. The leader was simply the catalyst for meeting the crisis.

The Transfer of Charisma Across Environments

In another case study, Roberts and Bradley (1988) studied the same leader in a different context to see if charisma can be transferred into a new situation by the leader. The superintendent was appointed Commissioner

of Education by the Governor of the state. The new Commissioner called for a restructuring of the state educational system and introduced the same elements for transforming the system as she had at the school district level. While expecting the same dramatic positive results as seen in the previous situation, transformation of the context and charisma in the leader was not reported.

The authors use a model developed by Bradley (1987) to compare the two situations and describe charisma as having a normative, relational and organizational dimension (cf. Figure 11: Assessment of Charismatic Elements). It appears charisma was not perceived at the state level because charisma did not emerge at a normative level, probably because there was no agreement that a crisis existed. The point is made that a crisis is needed in order to have participants look for charisma in the leader, which then promotes the perception of charisma at the relational and organizational level.

FIGURE 11: ASSESSMENT OF CHARISMATIC ELEMENTS

ANALYTICAL DIMENSIONS OF CHARISMA	REQUISITE THEORETICAL ELEMENTS	DISTRICT LEVEL	STATE LEVEL
<hr/>			
NORMATIVE			
charisma as a social category	existence of a crisis	agreement of funding crisis	no agreement
	attribution of charisma to leader	perception of leader as charismatic	no charisma reported
RELATIONAL			
charisma as a leadership relationship	acknowledgment of the charismatic as leader	leader seen as empowering, un - limited authority	limited authority
	intense mutual bond of affection	widespread affec- tion and respect	limited affection
ORGANIZATIONAL			
charisma as a structure for social transfor- mation	strong consensual structure of collective power and energy	highly coordinated team	no coordinated teams
	highly charged bonds for social energy	meetings create unity and energy	failure to create bonds

These studies conclude that charisma or the transformational process is not transferable by virtue of the attributes of the leader. A number of factors must work together in a hierarchical fashion beginning with the perception of a crisis. This is similar to the findings of other scholars (Tucker, 1970; Cell, 1974). Roberts and Bradley raise the ethical question of whether it is legitimate for a leader to promote or manufacture a crisis in order to exercise the control over followers that charisma can foster.

It should be noted that while a crisis increases the probability of followers perceiving charisma in the leader, other researchers would argue that this factor is not essential. They would maintain that it is simply necessary for the work to lend itself to being described as a cause, having meaning beyond the individual employee, and worthy of a commitment (House, 1977).

The human service sector and personal social services perform the type of work activity that lends itself to being talked about in altruistic terms. For many professionals in the sector, their involvement is motivated by a desire to be of service to fellow human beings. One would expect that transformational leadership would be very complementary in this environment.

Added to the motivation of the employees is the fact that the overall sector finds itself in a funding, technological, and demand-for-service crisis which enhances the conditions for the appearance of transformational or charismatic leadership.

The Transfer of Charisma Within the Organization

Whereas the previous case study addressed the transferability of charisma to a different organization using the same leader, Trice and Beyer (1986) look at the issue of routinization of charisma in the same organization with successive leaders.

Trice and Beyer examined two organizations that were founded by charismatics: Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) founded in 1935, and the American National Council on Alcoholism (NCA) founded in 1946. The NCA is a political action group fostering a better understanding of alcoholism and encouraging the development of more treatment programmes for alcoholics. AA is a self-help support group to foster the rehabilitation of alcoholics. The two charismatic leaders met five established criteria:

- 1) possessing certain extraordinary characteristics;
- 2) advancing a radical message and mission;
- 3) having a mission that addressed a perceived crisis;
- 4) attracting followers, arousing excitement, awe, and reverence through personal characteristics;
- 5) having a mission that met with visible success to validate their charisma.

The method of data collection was participant observation of the leaders in meetings and activities of the organizations, interviews with key informants, and analysis of organizational documents.

The study found that in AA, charisma was "routinized" or integrated into the structure of the organization and continued after the founder's departure. In the NCA, charisma was not routinized and disappeared with the retirement of the founding leader. The study concludes that routinization occurs through four factors:

- 1) Developing an administrative structure that maintains the charismatic leader's programmes without the need for his/her direct involvement in that structure;
- 2) Developing rituals and ceremonies that promote the charismatic's values, and are transferred to others in the organization;
- 3) The choosing of a successor who is clearly committed to the charismatic leader's vision;
- 4) Simplifying the complexity of the message, the needs of the organization, and the criteria of success, i.e. keeping it simple.

While these factors appear important in maintaining an organization's vitality, an additional factor that the authors touch on is the motivation of the participants in the organization's structure. AA sought to benefit those who participated in the structure, i.e. it was designed to keep the members sober. This would tend to instill high commitment and involvement in the organization. The NCA, on the other hand, involved participants with altruistic motivations, who did not

directly benefit from the services, and who had other, often more important, interests in their lives. This tended to dilute commitment and involvement.

AA today continues to be a vital and forceful organization, at least partially because of the routinization of charisma in the structure. The NCA continues to exist but is no longer the high profile organization it once was. This study is relevant in enhancing our understanding of how an organization can remain vibrant and strong by integrating charisma, i.e. a continuous vision, strong consistent values, and an ongoing commitment to the cause, into its structure long after the charismatic leader is gone.

5.1.2 Laboratory Experiments

A number of laboratory studies have been completed investigating both transformational and charismatic leadership, comparing their identification and impact to other styles.

Transformational Leadership and Effectiveness

In one study (Avolio, Waldman, and Einstein, 1988), teams of M.B.A. students participated for one semester in a simulation game where each team represented a manufacturing company. Each team was asked to choose a "president" and make a number of business decisions over the semester in an environment that simulated the business world. The effectiveness of the teams was monitored on a number of financial indices. Using Bass' (1985) Multi-Leader Questionnaire, the presidents were rated by team members in transformational and transactional leadership style. Significant positive relationships were found between transformational leadership factors and one transactional factor, contingency reward, and the effectiveness indices.

This study is particularly instructive in that the indices of effectiveness are indicators not reliant upon feedback from the subordinates, eliminating the same source bias that is prevalent in much field research. The issue of causation, however, is not fully addressed since the data on leadership style was not collected until the end of the semester when group members were aware of the financial results for their group. The argument could be made that these results influenced

their perception of the leader's style, or that the leadership style instilled confidence in the members and resulted in better performance.

Leader Style, Productivity Norms, and Task Performance

Howell and Frost (1989) conducted a laboratory study involving 144 commerce undergraduates completing tasks under the direction of either a trained charismatic, structuring, or considerate leader. In each of the three groups of students, in addition to the trained leader, there were two trained confederates, who communicated either high or low productivity norms. Participants were measured on their individual adjustments to the leader and task, as well as actual task performance.

Regardless of the productivity norms, group members working under charismatic leaders had the highest task performance, task adjustment, and adjustment to the leader. Under the structuring leader and with high productivity norms, higher task satisfaction and lower role conflict was reported than in groups working under the same leader with low productivity norms. Considerate leader groups with high productivity norms had higher task satisfaction than those with a

considerate leader and low productivity norms. Interestingly, participants in charismatic leader groups reported higher satisfaction with the leader than even participants in considerate leader groups.

The authors conclude:

- 1) Charisma can be empirically isolated and distinguished from other leadership styles.
- 2) Charisma can be studied in the "laboratory" where many external factors can be eliminated.
- 3) Leaders can be trained to exhibit charismatic behaviour, as well as considerate and structured leadership styles.

While the study is encouraging, the major issue to be addressed is to what degree are the findings applicable to the "real world", considering the limitations of the study, e.g. a 45-minute time-limited exercise without the requirement of a long term commitment.

Attributions of Charisma and Observer Characteristics

Puffer (1990) investigated the attribution of charisma as impacted by decision style, organizational outcomes and observer characteristics. Building on the

concepts of Hollander and Offerman (1990) and Conger and Kanungo (1987), a laboratory exercise was designed using case material to which participants responded by attributing degrees of charisma to the leader. The study involved 70 undergraduates in a business class, and 103 practicing managers. Respondents were asked to rate a leader's overall charisma on the basis of Conger and Kanungo's three charisma factors, - attribution of expertise, risk-taking and charisma.

The results indicated that decision style, organizational outcomes, and observer characteristics all had an impact on the attribution of charisma, but that it was important to look at the individual charisma factors. The authors conclude that this finding supports the notion that a number of factors affect the attribution of charisma and that a crisis is not a necessary criterion for the observance of charismatic leadership. While the conclusion is somewhat persuasive, it must be recognized that the study is again artificial, making it difficult to draw firm conclusions for practicing leaders. Further field research is important to determine the degree to which the conclusions are applicable.

5.1.3 Field Surveys

Numerous recent studies have been conducted in a range of field settings in order to explore the relationship between leadership style, subordinate perceptions and alternate source measures. Examples of this research will be briefly examined. These studies all use the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5) developed by Bass (1985) to measure transformational and transactional leadership style.

Leader Attributes and Effectiveness Measures

Waldman, Bass and Einstein (1987) studied managers in a large business organization examining the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership factors and the outcomes of a performance appraisal process. The outcomes included employee perceptions of the reward and development uses, as well as actual appraisal ratings. Results indicated that transformational leadership was positively related to performance appraisal scores. Transactional leadership, with the exception of contingency reward, was related to employee dissatisfaction with the appraisal processes. The study

concluded that the employees of transformational leaders were much more likely to be satisfied with the appraisal process, as well as receiving positive ratings.

Hater and Bass (1988) surveyed subordinates from a door-to-door express delivery business asking them to rate their superior as a top performer or ordinary performer, as well as indicating the degree to which he/she was transformational or transactional. The research indicated that subordinate perceptions of leader effectiveness in transformational leaders exceeded the perceived effectiveness of transactional leaders. The authors report that subordinates perceived transactional leadership resulting in low effectiveness indicators. The authors report being surprised that the transactional leadership style scores, in fact, correlated negatively with subordinate perceptions of effectiveness. The one exception was contingent reward, a factor making up transactional leadership which was non-significant.

Clover (1990) involved 40 different Naval Academy squadrons consisting of 4,400 cadets and their squadron leaders in a study examining the impact of transformational leadership on subordinate perceptions of leader effectiveness and a variety of objective effectiveness

indicators, (e.g. cadet examinations, occurrences of disciplinary action, room inspections, daily marching and other exercises). Whereas most studies treat the various leadership factors separately, Clover developed a single score for transformational leadership which he used for analysis. Since the data gathering was a regular activity completed at the end of a semester, data was provided for one year or two semesters. The study concluded that transformational leaders have a more positive impact on team performance, member attitudes and stronger emotional reactions than do transactional leaders. He states " transformational leadership is an important component in an organization where a central part of its mission is the transmission of pivotal values such as duty, honor, and country before self" (Clover, 1990, p. 183).

Studies which replicate similar findings in different settings include midshipmen at a naval academy (Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Waldman et al., 1990); employees at a large petrochemical company (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter, 1990); a law enforcement agency (Deluga and Souza, 1991); and a school system in Singapore (Koh, Terborg, and Steer, 1991). The studies provide support to the hypothesis that transformational leadership is a powerful concept

in enhancing subordinate perception of leader effectiveness, employee satisfaction and other organizational outcomes.

5.1.4 Summary

An array of research has been conducted recently exploring transformational leadership (TFL) and transactional leadership (TAL) in a variety of settings and using different methods (cf. Figure 12: Summary of Recent Research).

FIGURE 12: SUMMARY OF RECENT RESEARCH

	TYPE OF STUDY	SETTING	FOCUS	RESULTS
House, 1985	Case study	Presidents & Prime Ministers of Canada and U.S. (political setting)	Subordinate relationship with charismatic and non-charismatic leader	Charismatic leaders had either an intense positive relationship or intense negative relationship with leader
Roberts, 1985	Case study	School District	Nature of charisma	Crisis is major catalyst to a charismatic leader emerging
Roberts & Bradley, 1988	Case study	State Dept. of Education	Transferability of charisma across contexts	Charismatic leader in one context is not perceived as such in another (dependent on variety of factors)
Trice & Beyer, 1986	Case study	2 non-profit advocacy agencies	Transferability of charisma within same organization across leaders	Possible to transfer (routinize) charisma into organizational culture depending on leader strategies
Avolio, Waldman & Einstein, 1988	Laboratory study	Simulation of business setting	Measure effectiveness of transformational and transactional leadership	Most effective teams perceived leader as being more transformational
Howell & Frost, 1989	Laboratory	Work groups tasks	Evaluate impact of task satisfaction, task performance & leadership style	Groups working under charismatic productivity norms, had highest task performance
Puffer, 1990	Laboratory study	Class room exercise	Subjects evaluated the charisma level of leader in examples provided	Leader's decision style, outcome of decision & characteristics of evaluators determined perception of charisma in leader

TYPE OF STUDY	SETTING	FOCUS	RESULTS
Waldman, Bass & Einstein, 1987	Field survey Large corporation	Relationship between leadership style & subordinate's performance appraisal	Transformational leaders supervised employees with higher performance scores than transactional leaders
Hater & Bass, 1988	Field survey National delivery business	Subordinates' rating of leader effectiveness and leadership style	Transformational leaders rated as more effective than transactional leaders TAL correlated negatively with effectiveness
Clover, 1990	Field survey Naval Academy	Impact of TFL* on subordinate effectiveness	Subordinates of transformational leaders performed better than other leaders
Yammarino & Bass, 1990	Field survey Naval Academy	Impact of TAL** & TFL on subordinate effectiveness	Subordinates of TFL are more effective, with better attitudes than those of TAL
Podsakoff et al., 1990	Field survey Petro-Chemical plant	Impact of TAL & TFL on subordinate perceptions and effectiveness	Subordinates of TFL are more effective, with better attitudes than those of TAL
Delouga & Souza, 1991	Field survey Law enforcement	Impact of TAL & TFL on subordinate perceptions and effectiveness	Subordinates of TFL are more effective, with better attitudes than those of TAL
Koh, Terborg & Steer, 1991	Field survey School system	Impact of TFL of principals on performance of students	TFL was perceived as being related to higher student performance

*TFL - Transformational Leaders

**TAL - Transactional Leaders

Numerous field surveys indicate that the two styles can be identified by subordinates and that TFL is linked to higher performance and more positive subordinate perceptions than TAL. While a wide range of organizations have been studied, PSSOs have not been included in this research.

The laboratory studies confirm that charismatic leadership style, the major factor in TFL, can be identified by individuals familiar with the leader and that leader charisma is related to higher performance of subordinates and/or more positive perceptions than other forms of leadership style. The study by Howell and Frost (1989) indicates in particular that the elements of charismatic leadership can be identified and taught to leaders with positive results.

The case studies explore the nature of charismatic leadership and separate it from the leader. Conclusions regarding the external requirements necessary for the manifestation of charisma are made. The perception of a crisis is reported to be a key element in the appearance of charismatic leadership. The study by Trice and Beyer (1986), however, postulates that it is possible to "routinize" charisma in an organization as the charismatic leader relinquishes the leadership role. Charisma

is presented therefore as a leaderless phenomenon. While the major weakness of the Trice & Beyer (1986) study is that it is based on an analysis of only two organizations, the findings are worthwhile of further investigation.

The studies described raise a number of issues for personal social service organizations. Is a crisis required in order for transformational leadership to be observed? Given that there are well-documented difficulties within the sector, does this fact enhance the prevalence of TFL or charismatic leadership? Do certain organizational environments, including PSSOs, have a charismatic culture which enhances the likelihood of finding this type of leadership? Finally, the studies have shown positive results and the relationships support the conceptual and practical framework, but can causation be shown? It is also necessary to investigate whether the findings are equally applicable to PSSOs.

5.2 LEADERSHIP RESEARCH WITH PSSOs

As indicated in Chapter II, there is a recognition among human service researchers and scholars that leadership and the effective management of social service organizations is becoming increasingly important (Austin, 1989; Sugarman, 1989; Bargal and Schmidt, 1989). While the interest is there, the extent of the leadership research in PSSOs appears limited to primarily conceptual frameworks which are untested, and applying research findings which have their origins in the business world. Most of the literature applying to PSSOs emphasizes how to effectively manage subordinate staff (Kadushin, 1985; Middleman and Rhodes, 1985; Austin, 1981).

Gruber (1986) argues that leadership in social service administration is essentially a dilemma of service effectiveness which is addressed by the leader in three spheres:

- 1) the technical or service related,
- 2) the internal organizational coherence, and
- 3) the external, community environment.

He also points out the instability of the environment and ambiguities within which PSSOs operate. Gardner (1986) defines leadership as a dynamic interactive process of communication, action and influence of other constituents. He makes the distinction between managers who are committed to the status quo and leaders who look for the opportunities and revisions of the existing structures in order to respond to an ever-changing environment.

Hart (1988) advocates that social service administrators must integrate the learnings from the business world and apply them to the management of the non-profit industry. She identifies fields like marketing, strategic planning, and accounting as having application for more effectively managed PSSOs. Bargal and Schmidt (1989) review leadership research and discuss its application for the management of human services. They develop a matrix model integrating four major leadership themes with five characteristics of PSSOs, in order to develop 20 leadership strategies to enhance PSSO functioning. These strategies are then elaborated on.

One of the few examples of field research on leadership in the social service sector was conducted by Glisson (1989). The study involved individuals from 22 PSSOs and was designed to identify those dimensions of leadership that affect the attitudes of workers, and are likely to promote the success of the organization's efforts. The results indicated that the leadership factors of interest, i.e. leader maturity, power of the leader, and leader intelligence, were related to subordinate job satisfaction and commitment.

The author concluded that leadership ability comes from a combination of traits, and enables the leader to exert influence on followers to believe in the mission of the organization, and to remain members of that organization. It is the opinion of the researcher that "...because workers in these organizations suffer from high rates of burnout and low morale, and because the nature of the work performed...involves stressful interactions with clients, organizational commitment is a more important determinant of success than are variables that depend on headcounts and costs" (p. 113).

5.3 RELEVANCE OF CURRENT STUDY

The current study is a field-based survey examining the existence of transformational and transactional leadership and its relationship to subordinate perceptions and organizational outputs in PSSOs. Some of the key perceptions include job satisfaction, commitment, hours worked per week, leader effectiveness and subordinate satisfaction with the leader. Organizational outputs include budget growth, percentage of budget fundraised, organizational turnover and absenteeism rates.

While there is evidence to suggest transformational and transactional leadership is successful in business and political environments, there is no research exploring its impact in a social service environment. As Bargal and Schmidt (1989) indicated "...being drawn from the reality of business organizations, these theories should be further tested more systematically to determine their applicability to social service organizations" (p. 53). This research addresses that need. If transformational and transactional leadership can be identified in this sector as relevant, the findings may have implications for the training and selection of leaders in this sector.

CHAPTER VI

6.0 METHODOLOGY

The dissertation will use survey methods to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and a number of relevant variables. The two leadership styles to be examined are transactional and transformational leadership (cf. Figure 13: The Research Model). These styles will be related to output variables (e.g. job satisfaction, commitment, hours worked, leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, turnover 1 and 2, absenteeism 1 and 2, budget growth, and percentage fundraised) as well as intervening variables (e.g. number of sites, full time equivalents, budget size, degree of unionization, subordinate age, sex, status, education, and leader age, sex, education, experience, etc.).

The methodology chapter addresses the research questions to be examined, the research design, and the variables to be explored.

FIGURE 13: THE RESEARCH MODEL

INDEPENDENT INPUT VARIABLES	INTERVENING VARIABLES	DEPENDENT OUTPUT VARIABLES

	ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS	ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUTS
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Full-time equivalents * Number of sites * Size of budget * Unionization * Agency longevity * Organizational type * Location * Sponsorship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Budget increase/growth * % Fundraised * Turnover 1 * Absenteeism 1
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP		
	SUBORDINATE CHARACTERISTICS	SUBORDINATE PERCEPTIONS (OUTPUTS)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Age * Sex * Status * Education * Longevity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Job satisfaction * Work week * Commitment * Turnover 2 * Absenteeism 2 * Leader Effectiveness * Satisfaction with the leader
LEADERSHIP QUADS	LEADER CHARACTERISTICS	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Age * Longevity * Education * Salary * Sex * Experience 	

6.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

QUESTION 1: Are job satisfaction, hours worked, and commitment of subordinates predictors of transformational and transactional leadership?

Job satisfaction, hours worked, and commitment are important factors in the effective functioning of most organizations. They are especially important in a social service context. Health care professionals often work in isolated, high stress situations requiring immediate action. Great emotional demands are placed on them as they work with clients. Workers and supervisors are called to meet the needs of clients when resources are inadequate and the only answer is to extend oneself more. When job satisfaction and commitment is high, agency staff will be more likely to do what is required for the client or the overall programme. At times, meeting the needs of the job means working additional hours. Leadership style may influence these factors. If a relationship exists, it is expected that job satisfaction, hours worked, and commitment are stronger predictors of transformational leadership than transactional leadership.

QUESTION 2: Is there a different impact on subordinate absenteeism (absenteeism 2) and turnover (turnover 2) from transactional or transformational leadership?

Absenteeism and voluntary turnover present special difficulties to organizations like social service agencies that work with psychologically or emotionally vulnerable clients. The work task involves developing a personal relationship with the client so that he/she trusts the worker, and then applying clinical skills in order to help the client implement change strategies. Both elements are required for positive change to take place.

The subordinates in the research are primarily supervisors and play an important role in this process. They must develop the same trust relationship with the line staff as the line staff develops with the client. In this way the supervisor can share expertise and support the worker in his or her task. At times the supervisor must deal directly with clients as well. Often, the knowledge required to competently advise the worker in difficult situations or intervene directly comes from the longevity of the supervisor with the agency. Turnover and absenteeism at the supervisory

level interrupts the ability of the organization to deliver competent, continuous service. It is therefore desirable to reduce turnover and absenteeism at the supervisory level, which is being investigated in the research.

As identified in section 6.5 Outputs, one would expect that the higher the transformational leadership of the chief executive, the lower the absenteeism and turnover rates of the subordinate. The reasoning would be that TFL style increases the commitment and involvement on the part of the subordinate, which in turn enhances ownership and results in lower levels of absenteeism and turnover.

QUESTION 3: Does transformational or transactional leadership affect subordinate perception of leader effectiveness?

It is important to understand what type of leader is perceived as being effective in a PSSO so that a leader's influence with subordinates can be maximized. While there may be other ways of measuring leader effectiveness, due to the complexity of a PSSO and the

related problems discussed in Chapter II, worker perceptions about effectiveness are as valid as other measures.

It is expected that just as transformational leadership shows a higher positive correlation with leader effectiveness than does transactional leadership in a variety of non-social service organizations (Bass, 1985), the same relationships can be shown to exist in child welfare agencies. The individual sub-items used to develop the leader effectiveness scale are also examined in relation to leadership style.

QUESTION 4: Does transformational or transactional leadership affect subordinate satisfaction with the leader?

Working in a PSSO can be extremely stressful. One of the keys to minimizing the controllable stress of the job is for the worker to feel empowered and affirmed. The worker must be supported, encouraged, and guided in order to complete the task at hand. A leader must use techniques that communicate and instill these elements in the worker. It seems reasonable to assume that the degree to which a leader is able to accomplish this, is related to the level of satisfaction with the leader the

subordinate will express. Transformational leadership is expected to result in greater satisfaction with the leader than transactional leadership.

While requiring further investigation, it would seem logical to think that satisfaction with the leader, and the resulting confidence in the leader, will have a positive effect on the subordinate's job performance. Bass (1985) included this measure in his questionnaire.

QUESTION 5: Is transformational or transactional leadership related to certain attributes of the follower, i.e. age, education, sex, status, length of service?

While there are some exceptions (Mauer, 1969), researchers have found relationships between job satisfaction and satisfaction with the leader, and certain subordinate characteristics like age, gender, and education (Andrews and Henry, 1963; Klein and Maher, 1966; Murray and Atkinson, 1981; Austrom et al., 1990). If transformational or transactional leadership is related to certain attributes of the subordinate, it may be an indication that subordinate characteristics elicit a particular leadership style, or that a leader

adjusts his/her leadership style to the needs of the employees. This question is explored to determine its implications.

In PSSOs, workers are highly educated, experienced, and are motivated by strong personal values and beliefs. One would expect that the convictions and commitment to clients would grow as workers mature. It was important, therefore, to explore these employee characteristics in order to determine what relationships exist between these and the independent leadership variables. It is anticipated that if there is a relationship, experience, age, and education of workers would be more positively related to transformational leadership than to transactional leadership.

QUESTION 6: Is transformational or transactional leadership related to certain agency characteristics, i.e. number of full-time employees, number of sites, budget size, unionization, organization type, agency longevity, sponsorship, location?

McCall and Lombardo (1978) indicated that leaders are influenced by the overall environment within which they operate. The factors which they identified included the larger society, unions, technology and the history of the organization.

PSSOs in the sample are varied in size with some having as many as a dozen sites, many are highly unionized, and most are located within urban centres. As discussed previously, factors such as unionization and decentralization of service sites are considered neutralizers of leadership. It is expected that the larger the organization, the more difficult it is for the effects of leadership to manifest themselves.

It will be important to determine whether one particular style of leadership is positively related to these factors. This may indicate that certain leadership styles are more relevant than other styles in these situations. The dissertation explores whether there is

a relationship between a range of agency characteristics and leadership styles in the child welfare sector. One might expect that, because TFL is a style which attempts to inspire subordinates with ideas and a sense of vision rather than providing day-to-day supervision, TFL would be positively linked to the number of sites and budget size, i.e. as sites and budget size increase, TFL would become stronger than TAL.

The most effective leadership style for unionized settings could be debated. Since unionized settings tend to be governed by contracts, rules and regulations, TAL might be more prevalent. On the other hand, since the contract governs the specifics of the employee/employer relationship, leaders may find themselves trying to influence employees by appealing to higher values and articulating a sense of vision which is TFL style. The subordinates being analyzed in the dissertation are primarily supervisory staff and may not be a part of a bargaining unit in organizations with unions, however it is likely that the relationship they have with their supervisor (i.e. the Executive Director) is influenced by whether the setting is unionized or non-unionized.

QUESTION 7: What is the effect of transformational and transactional leadership style on agency budget growth and charitable fundraising?

It is anticipated that agencies with highly transformational leaders may have higher budget growth than agencies with leaders that are highly transactional. This view is based on the assumption that a leader who is highly visionary and has an ability to communicate that vision, would be able to persuade funders to supply the needed dollars for agency programmes. Similarly, a transformational leader may be able to communicate the vision effectively to donors who would then support the agency in its plans and enhance its ability to generate charitable funds.

QUESTION 8: Do certain attributes of the leader, i.e. sex, age, education, longevity as Executive Director, experience, and salary, correlate with transformational and transactional leadership?

Similar to subordinate characteristics, there may be a relationship between leader characteristics and leadership style. It may be, for example, that as the leader becomes more educated or experienced, he/she may exhibit one leadership style over another. Age or experience could build confidence in a leader, resulting in less of a need by the leader to control the activities of subordinates. One might expect an older, more experienced leader to be more considerate, nurturing and wiser than a younger, inexperienced Executive Director. This would lead to a greater level of transformational leadership in those individuals. These relationships are explored.

6.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Allport (1937) identifies two fundamental approaches to the study of human behaviour - the ideographic and nomothetic methods. Each produces conclusions or "laws". Ideographic laws are derived from studies of single individual cases and nomothetic laws are derived from the study of populations or samples of populations of cases. This study uses the nomothetic method. More specifically, the study is a field survey (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1979, p. 50) where data was collected from a sample representative of child welfare agencies in the province of Ontario. The sample was obtained from a population of 48 Children's Aid Societies (CASs) and 92 Children's Mental Health Centres (CMHCs).

6.2.1 Instruments

The data was collected by means of two questionnaires.

The Executive Director Questionnaire: The Executive Director Questionnaire consists of two major parts. The first section gathers information about characteristics of the Executive Director, e.g. age,

sex, education, etc. The second section requests agency-specific information, e.g. funding source, budget size, etc. In field testing it was found that most agencies had the data readily available and that the questionnaire could be filled out in about 10 minutes. (See Appendix III: Executive Director Questionnaire).

The Supervisee's Leadership Questionnaire: This questionnaire consists of two major parts. Section One contains questions relating to respondent-specific information, e.g. sex, age, status, etc. In addition it asks for responses to subordinate-specific output variables, e.g. job satisfaction, agency commitment, and work week.

Section Two contains the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire - Short Form (MLQ F5) developed by Bass and Avolio (1990). Respondents are asked to describe their supervisors by responding to 47 items which identify transformational and transactional leadership behaviours or perceptual outcomes. Forty questions relate to eight sub-scales, four indicating transformational leadership (TFL) and four relating to transactional leadership (TAL). The scales relating to TFL are charisma, inspiration, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Those factors comprising TAL

include contingency reward, management by exception-active, management by exception-passive, and laissez-faire.

The remaining questions are items that relate to the leader effectiveness scale (four items) and the satisfaction with leader scale (two items). The final question asks the respondent to evaluate the adequacy of the questionnaire in describing his/her particular leader. The responses are based on a five-point Likert scale extending from zero which indicates "not at all" to four indicating "frequently if not always". Pretesting indicated it would take approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. (While seven additional questions appear on the questionnaire these were not used in the current study). (See Appendix IV: The Supervisee's Questionnaire)

The Questionnaire (MLQ - Short Form 5)

The MLQ - Short Form F5 (Bass, 1990) is based on a longer questionnaire of 79 items developed by Bass (1985). Bass reports that the factors have remained the same on the shorter version except that charisma emerged as two factors, "charisma" and "inspiration", and the management by exception factor has "active", "passive",

and "laissez-faire" components. The overall factor structure and alpha coefficients have remained basically the same. Bass and Avolio (1990) report that the scales for the short form all have coefficient alpha reliabilities of between .94 and .70. The short form was developed by eliminating certain questions from the long form, which did not load highly on the individual sub-scales.

Avolio and Bass (1988) and Bass, Avolio and Goodheim (1987), using the long form MLQ, state in their findings that the alpha coefficients for all the factors were above .85 for the scales except for management by exception which had a coefficient of about .60. This can be attributed to the active and passive sub-parts which generate alpha coefficients of .74 and .64 respectively (Hater and Bass, 1988).

In the work by Bass (1985) on validation of MLQ - Long Form, charismatic leadership accounted for 65% of the 90% of variance of consequence; individual consideration accounted for 6% of the common variance; intellectual stimulation accounted for 2.9%; contingent reward accounted for 6.3%; and management by exception accounted for 4.3% of the common variance.

The individual questions loaded highly on the various factors. The range for charisma and inspiration was .71 to .90; intellectual stimulation .46 to .69; individual consideration was .40 to .56; contingent reward items .40 to .70; management by exception-active and passive, and laissez-faire, .66 to .72. It is an unweighted scale.

6.2.2 Sample and Data Collection Procedure

The sample was acquired out of a total of 140 child welfare agencies in Ontario. The agencies are funded primarily by the Ministry of Community and Social Services, legislated under the Child and Family Services Act and provide services to children and families who are emotionally disturbed or experiencing a personal or family crisis. It was felt these similarities allowed for a rationale for integrating these organizations into one sample.

To help solicit the sample, provincial associations, who represent CASS and CMHCs, were requested to endorse the study and write a letter communicating this to their member agencies. The Ontario Association of

Children's Mental Health Centres agreed and sent a letter addressed to each Executive Director. (See Appendix V: CMHC Letter of Endorsation).

The Ontario Association of Children's Aid Societies was supportive, but had a policy that all endorsements for research needed to come before a committee of Executive Directors who would not meet for seven weeks from the date of contact. As an alternative, a request for endorsement was made to the Executive Director of the Waterloo Region Children's Aid Society. He readily agreed to endorse the project. (See Appendix VI: Waterloo Region Children's Aid Society Letter of Endorsation).

Within a week of these letters being sent, a mailing went out to all Executive Directors in the population. The package included information on the scope of the research, its purpose and benefits and requested that consideration be given to participation. It also included a self-addressed return card indicating the willingness of the Executive Director to allow his/her subordinates to participate in the research, as well as how many subordinates he/she supervised directly. (See Appendix VII: Initial Participant Request).

Any agency Executive Director that did not respond within three weeks received a personal phone call asking if he/she required additional information, as well as requesting a decision.

As soon as the participation cards were returned, a second mailing went to the agencies agreeing to be involved. The package included an Executive Director Questionnaire and the number of Supervisee Questionnaires which corresponded to the number of supervisees indicated by the Executive Director on the response card. All questionnaires were coded to a common agency number assigned to it by the researcher. The package included a description of the research, a consent-to-participate form with return envelope, the questionnaire, and a large return envelope for each supervisee. A covering letter asked the Executive Director to distribute a questionnaire and related material to each subordinate. (See Appendix VIII: Participating Agency Package).

Participants were asked to return the questionnaires and consent forms within ten days.

The completed questionnaires were filed into agency folders by code number as they were received by the researcher. The total number of questionnaires to be returned for an agency was indicated on the outside of the file folder. Approximately four weeks after the participant questionnaires were sent to the agency a "gentle reminder" letter was sent to all agencies thanking them for their positive response and asking that a final memo be sent to all individual respondents indicating that the cutoff date for including data was in one week. (See Appendix IX: Reminder Letter).

6.2.3 Summary

The instruments used to gather the information for this field survey consisted of two questionnaires. The Executive Director Questionnaire requested information on the characteristics of the Executive Director as well as information about the organization. The Supervisee's Questionnaire contained items about the characteristics of the supervisee as well as the MLQ - F5 questionnaire developed by Bass to measure leadership style.

The independent variables are reflected by an overall transformational and transactional leadership score identical to a method used by Clover (1990). In addition, a nominal leadership measure, utilizing a median split, is used to develop leadership quads. Each quad classifies a leader as being either high or low on the transactional and transformational variables.

The sample comes from a population of 140 child welfare agencies in Ontario. The sample involves the Executive Directors of participating agencies as well as all the subordinates under their direct supervision. Respondents were encouraged to participate through letters of endorsement from their associations or peers, as well as through direct mailing and telephone requests. Supervisees were asked to provide written consent to participate and were given self-addressed confidential envelopes for the questionnaires. All questionnaires were coded by agency number.

A correlation matrix was used to discover how pairs of variables were related to one another. Two way anovas were used to discover differences between the independent and dependent variables, and discern whether there was a main effect or interaction. Regression models were developed in order to determine what the

dominant dependent variables were and how much of the variance of consequence could be explained by the model. If the anovas did not result in a significant finding, no regression models were developed.

6.3 INPUTS - THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

6.3.1 Leadership Style

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP (TFL) refers to a style made up of charisma, inspiration, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bass, Avolio, 1990). Charisma refers to the leader's ability to serve as a role model, establish a sense of trust, encourage subordinates to go beyond their own self-interests, and provide the individuals with a collective sense of mission. Inspiration refers to the leader setting high standards, providing new challenges and looking optimistically to the future by identifying a vision of future opportunities. Intellectual stimulation is the process whereby the leader engages followers intellectually, encouraging them to solve problems in a creative and innovative way. Individualized consideration refers to the giving of personal attention to members of the organization. The leader is perceived as

coaching, advising, and supporting members as the occasion arises. These factors are seen as the key elements of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985).

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP (TAL) refers to interactions of a leader which are centered on day-to-day activities. The four factors comprising this style include contingent reward, management by exception-active, management by exception-passive, and laissez-faire. Contingent reward refers to the leader communicating and implementing how rewards can be achieved for expected effort. Management by exception-active is the process of the leader continuously monitoring the task and quickly intervening when mistakes or deviations occur. Management by exception-passive refers to the style that requires problems to be chronic and quite pronounced before the leader will intervene. As long as minimal standards are being met the leader avoids involvement. Finally, laissez-faire is the leader being content to let people do their jobs no matter what. This leader takes great pains to avoid getting involved in important issues (Bass, 1985).

It is recognized the leadership styles are not mutually exclusive, i.e. a leader will exhibit both transactional and transformational leadership, but that

usually there is one style that is identified as being predominant (Bass, Avolio, 1990). For a more complete discussion of models of leadership, and in particular, TFL, refer to Chapter IV.

6.3.2 Unit of Analysis for the Leadership Variable

The following method was used to measure transformational and transactional leadership.

Leadership Score: In developing the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire, Bass identified eight factors, four relating to TFL and four factors relating to TAL. In a majority of the studies using this instrument, all eight factors are individually analyzed in relationship to the dependent variables. The focus of this dissertation was to explore how TFL and TAL as an overall concept related to the dependent variables. In addition, the research recognized that there were varying degrees of TFL and TAL style in the same leader which might result in different outcomes. The challenge was, therefore, to find a way of indicating the degree to which a leader was perceived as transformational and transactional.

Duplicating a method used by Clover (1990), leadership scores were calculated by taking the average (mean) score for each of the four transformational sub-scales, adding them together, dividing the sum by four, to come up with a mean score representing the degree to which a leader was transformational. The procedure was repeated for the four transactional sub-scales in order to come up with a score that represented the degree to which a leader is transactional. These leadership scores were then used in further analysis.

It must be recognized that there are limitations to this procedure. They include the loss of specific information regarding the factors making up TFL and TAL, as well as giving certain factors more or less influence on the final leadership score than their relative contribution to the score according to Bass (e.g. charisma and inspiration accounted for 65% of the variance of significance but in the averaging procedure, are given as much weight as individual consideration which accounted for 6.3% of the variance of significance).

In spite of the limitation, the judgment was made that the Clover technique best met the needs of the dissertation and was a suitable procedure, as long as it

was recognized that the score was a representation of the degree to which a leader exhibited TFL and TAL and that the specific information regarding the factors was lost.

Leadership Quads: While a single leadership score for transformational or transactional leadership was useful for some analysis, e.g. correlations and regression models, it was recognized that leaders exhibited varying degrees of both leadership styles (Bass, 1985). It was necessary, therefore, to develop a way of comparing leadership styles on both TFL and TAL at the same time.

In order to accomplish this, a median split was used to divide TAL scores into high and low where 50% were placed in the high category and 50% were in the low category. The procedure was repeated for TFL scores. Utilizing a series of "if" statements, a nominal variable of high and low transformational and transactional leadership was created (Norusis, 1990, p. B 36). A further series of "if" statements were developed in order to establish a nominal variable called leadership quads, i.e. Quad 1 = low TAL and low TFL; Quad 2 = high

TAL and low TFL; Quad 3 = hi TAL and hi TFL;
 Quad 4 = low TAL and hi TFL (cf. Figure 14: Leadership
 Quads).

FIGURE 14: LEADERSHIP QUADS

		TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP	
		LOW	HIGH
T R A N S A C T I V E L E A D E R S H I P	L O W	1 LOW LOW	4 HIGH LOW
	H I G H	2 LOW HIGH	3 HIGH HIGH

6.4 INTERVENING VARIABLES

Whenever the impact of independent variables is explored on dependent variables, intervening variables may exist, influencing outcomes either in concert with or autonomous of the original independent input variables of interest (Howell and Dorfman, 1986). While the prime focus of this research is to explore the impact of the leadership variable on certain outcome variables, the relationship of intervening variables to the input and output variables is also of interest.

6.4.1 Organizational Characteristics

Organizational characteristics such as size, defined by the number of full-time staff equivalents, the number of sites from which the organization delivers service, and the size of the annualized budget were also explored. Multiple sites or physical distances between the leader and subordinates are seen as neutralizers of leadership (Howell, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr, Podsakoff, 1990). These factors dilute the ability of the leader to communicate directly with subordinates and influence their actions. Unionization, as well, could reduce the

influence of the leader over staff in the agency since workers would be expected to respond to the concerns and suggestions of their union leaders.

The above elements exist in PSSOs and, when added to the fact that the task of helping people is done in a confidential manner away from the observation of the leader, may dilute the impact of leadership. If a leader cannot be a part of the activity that the organization is responsible for doing, it is difficult for him/her to provide direction, guidance or support. Similarly, budgets and the number of staff are indicators of size and could affect the dependent and independent variables. The larger the agency, the more difficult it is for the leader to have firsthand experience and awareness of the needs and problems confronting workers. This makes it difficult for the leader to respond appropriately to staff in order to enhance effectiveness.

In addition, agency longevity, location, sponsorship, and organizational type are explored in relationship to leadership style. While no specific literature has been identified connecting these variables to leadership, the information is readily available and worth exploring. It may be, for example, that an

organization that has just been started requires much more direction (TAL) than a more established organization. Furthermore, an organization that is religiously-sponsored may encourage more of one type of leadership style than a community-sponsored organization.

6.4.2 Subordinate Characteristics

Subordinate characteristics such as age, longevity in the position, education, supervisory or line staff status, and sex were also explored in relation to other dependent outcome variables and the independent leadership variables. Howell, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr, and Podsakoff (1990) indicate there are "substitutes for leadership" which they describe as "attributes of subordinates, tasks and organizations that provide task guidance and incentives to perform to such a degree that they virtually negate the leader's ability to either improve or impair subordinate performance."

Specific neutralizers of leadership listed by them include intrinsic satisfaction in the work, continuous feedback through computer technology, closely-knit teams and professional education. More generally, examples abound exploring gender (Austrom, Baldwin, Macy, 1990), age, education, job tenure, salary, job characteristics

(Lee and Wilbur, 1985; Cherrington, Condie, and England, 1979; Hackman, Lawler, 1971; Lee, Mueller, Miller, 1981; Rhodes, 1983).

Closely-knit teams and professional education are strong elements in PSSOs and could be expected to neutralize leadership. It will be important to explore these characteristics in relationship to leadership style. TFL would be expected to have a positive relationship with professional education, longevity in the position, age of subordinate, and supervisory status. In each case the greater the age, supervisory status vs. line staff, the higher the education, the greater the tenure in the position, the less likely it is that a subordinate would require direct supervision or TAL. This could increase the likelihood of TFL.

6.4.3 Leadership Characteristics

The literature indicates that leadership characteristics do, in part, influence leadership style. Mintzberg (1973) indicated that much could be learned from examining leader characteristics in relation to executive work style. Welbourn (1985) and Hayden (1991) examined leader characteristics such as age, years of experience, education, longevity and continuing

education in relation to various leader roles, with mixed results. The current study examines leader characteristics like age, sex, education, longevity in the current executive position, and experience as an Executive Director, in relation to leader style.

For example, one might expect leaders with more education, and experience in PSSOs, to understand the limitations of more traditional leadership styles and exhibit higher levels of transformational leadership.

6.5 OUTPUTS - THE DEPENDENT VARIABLES

A number of variables will be looked at as primary output variables. These variables were chosen because they are commonly perceived as measurements of desirable outcomes as well as being reasonably available to measurement. These outputs relate both to overall organizational outputs, (e.g. budget growth, percentage of budget fundraised, organizational turnover 1, and organizational absenteeism 1) and to subordinate specific outputs, (e.g. job satisfaction, work week, commitment, subordinate turnover 2, subordinate absenteeism 2, leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader).

6.5.1 Organizational Outputs

The organizational outputs measured include: budget growth, percentage of the agency budget that is fundraised, agency turnover and absenteeism.

Budget growth: Accessing the necessary annual operating funds is a major task for an agency and its leadership. Agencies that experience above average budget growth would generally be perceived by peers and the public-at-large as being more successful than organizations with average or less than average growth. If TFL produces better results than TAL, it would be expected that organizations with higher TFL would have higher budget growth than organizations with stronger TAL.

Budget growth was measured by the increase in budgets between 1985 and 1991. A majority of this time was a period of economic prosperity for Ontario (Report: Ministry of Treasury and Economics, Sept. 1991) and also a time of new government initiatives across the social service sector. Budget growth was measured by the 1991 budget divided by the 1985 budget multiplied by 100.

Percentage of the agency budget coming from charitable fundraising: In the economic climate of the 1980s and 1990s, the social service sector is coming under funding restraints at a time when demand for service is increasing. In this funding crisis, accessing non-government funds is one key way of dealing with the situation. Successfully raising charitable funds would appear to be an indicator of a strong social service organization. One would again expect that TFL would be positively related to higher levels of the budget being made up of charitable funds. The overall percentage of the budget made up by charitable funds was examined for the 1990/1991 budget year.

Organizational turnover rate (turnover 1): Turnover has been the focus of over 1500 pieces of research in this century and has long been recognized as an important factor in organizational functioning (Wagner, Pfeffer, and O'Reilly, 1984). High turnover rates, particularly of employees that the organization would like to retain, is seen as having a number of negative consequences, including the cost of training a new person, lack of continuity in service, and the impact on morale of employees remaining (Staw, 1980). There have

also been studies looking at leadership behaviour and its relationship to turnover (Fleischman and Harris, 1962).

While researchers recognize turnover rates are open to interpretation, and some believe better alternative measures need to be explored in order to fully understand their impact on the organization (Campion, 1991), turnover is a variable that could be instructive if understood in relation to other variables. Reducing turnover, particularly non-voluntary turnover of employees, would enhance a social service agency's ability to function effectively. It would reduce the cost of recruitment and training new workers as well as providing a continuity of relationship between workers and between workers and clients. In this study, annual organizational turnover rates were requested from the agency for the years 1989, 1990, and 1991 for comparison purposes. The measure of turnover for analysis as to leadership style was the 1991 year. This measure of organizational turnover rate is designated as "turnover 1" to distinguish it from the subordinate self-report of turnover rates. One might expect that organizations with higher levels of TFL would have lower levels of turnover 1, since TFL is said to enhance subordinate job satisfaction and commitment (Yammarino

and Bass, 1990; Delouga and Souza, 1991). Organizations with higher levels of TAL would have higher levels of turnover 1 since TAL is perceived to be less effective. At the same time it must be recognized that because the definition and interpretation of turnover rates are so multifaceted, conclusions may be hard to draw.

Organizational absenteeism rate (absenteeism 1):

Similar to turnover, absenteeism is seen as a negative factor in organizational life. While certain absences (e.g. absences due to severe illness) are unavoidable, unnecessary absenteeism, (e.g. a delay of returning to work after an illness) is perceived as being related to organizational stress and the motivational state of the employee (Matteson and Ivancevich, 1988). A number of studies have shown there is a negative correlation between job satisfaction, staff morale and absenteeism, i.e. as job satisfaction and morale goes up, the rate of absenteeism goes down (Vroom, 1964).

In an identification of outcome indicators, absenteeism was included with a full spectrum of attitudes, reactions, and behaviours of organizational members (Nightingale, 1982). In a personal social

service organization, continuity or minimal absenteeism is desirable since it enables relationships between agency workers and clients to be maximized.

Since research has shown a positive relationship between worker satisfaction and TFL, a transformational leader would be expected to lead an organization with lower absenteeism rates than an organization led by a leader who is more transactional (Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1990). The organizational absenteeism rate was defined as the number of days the average employee in the agency was absent due to sickness or other unforeseen personal reasons over the previous 12 months. The accepted manner of calculating and reporting the absenteeism rate within the sector is to refer to the "number of sick days taken". This was the information requested on the questionnaires. The organizational absenteeism rate was designated "absenteeism 1" in order to distinguish it from the absenteeism rate of the immediate subordinate respondents (absenteeism 2).

6.5.2 Subordinate Outputs

Absenteeism and turnover rates of subordinate respondents were explored. In addition, a number of perceptions of subordinate respondents were also investigated. These included job satisfaction, hours worked, agency commitment, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader.

Job satisfaction: Work-related attitudes, which include satisfaction, commitment and self-reported stress, comprise the second most published topic area in micro organizational behaviour. It is second only to goal setting (O'Reilly, 1991). Research suggests that an employee's job satisfaction is dependent on the positive outcome of a variety of factors including pay, variety of stimulation, consideration from the supervisor, probability of promotion, an opportunity to influence decisions which affect the worker's future, and control over the pace of work (Vroom, 1964).

Job satisfaction is a variable that was examined in relation to leadership style. Transformational leadership has been linked to a number of positive outcomes including increased job satisfaction (Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1990), and it would be

expected in this study, that as TFL increased, job satisfaction would increase as well. While still contributing to job satisfaction, TAL would be expected to be not as strong a factor as TFL.

There are many ways of measuring job satisfaction (Roznowski, 1989; Ironson, et al., 1989; Kerber and Campbell, 1987; Scarpello and Vandenberg, 1987). The "Intention to Turn Over" scale contained in the Michigan Organization Assessment Questionnaire will be used in this study (Cook et al., 1981). It was chosen primarily because it is brief, containing only three questions, and has been validated. The mean value calculated across the items constitutes the scale score. Coefficient alpha is given as .83 ($N = 400$). Correlations of $-.58$ and $-.35$ are reported with the author's measures of Overall Job Satisfaction and Job Involvement respectively. Respondents were requested to answer on a seven-point Likert response format.

Work week: Bass (1985) states that a transformational leader increases a follower's confidence, and heightens the value of the outcomes, which results in the subordinate putting forth more effort than was expected (p. 22). One would therefore expect TFL to result in higher extra effort scores than TAL. In the

original questionnaire developed by Bass, three questions that are designed to measure the subordinate's attitude of extra effort were included. These questions are not contained in the current short version of the leadership questionnaire. A simple substitute measure was needed.

It would appear reasonable to anticipate that if an employee worked in excess of the required number of hours in the work week, he/she was exerting extra effort. A substitute question to measure subordinate extra effort was "What are the average number of hours you work in the week?" The average number of hours worked was designated the "work week". The expected average work week designated by most organizations in the sector is between 37.5 and 40.0 hours per week (Wage Compensation Project, Ministry of Community and Social Services, 1991). The number of hours reported worked above the 40 hour limit was designated as the degree to which a subordinate exerted extra effort.

Commitment: Research on commitment as a concept is relatively new, having gathered attention only over the last ten years (O'Reilly, 1991). Mowday et al. (1982) defined commitment as the individual's identification with and involvement in a focal organization. The

measure developed by them, called the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, contains numerous questions which look at motivation, intent to remain and identification with the organization. This questionnaire was considered too long for inclusion in the study. While there are limitations to a single question factor, there is also the need to limit the number of questions in the subordinate questionnaire. As a result, commitment was measured by asking the subordinate's level of commitment to the organization using a five-point scale.

Similar to subordinate satisfaction, it was anticipated that subordinate commitment would be more positively related to TFL than TAL.

Subordinate turnover (turnover 2): As previously indicated, turnover rates are the subject of extensive investigation and may yield helpful information. Subordinate turnover in this dissertation is measured by the subordinate reporting how many different people have held the subordinate's position since 1985. It would be anticipated that if subordinates were highly committed to the organization and experienced high job satisfaction, the turnover related to the position would be low. Since TFL is expected to be related to higher

levels of job satisfaction and commitment than TAL, it is further expected that TFL is related to lower levels of subordinate turnover than TAL.

Subordinate absenteeism (absenteeism 2): As reported earlier, the absenteeism rate is measured by the subordinate reporting the number of sick days he/she estimates having taken off over the previous 12 months. Whereas absenteeism 1 is the measure for the entire organization for 1991, absenteeism 2 is the estimated number of sick days taken by the specific subordinate.

Bass (1985) indicates that TFL fosters higher levels of commitment and ownership for the work on the part of the subordinate than TAL. It would be expected, therefore, that TFL would result in lower levels of absenteeism 1 than TAL, since subordinates who feel a high level of ownership would show up for work even if they were not feeling well.

Leader effectiveness: Leader effectiveness, or the positive impact a leader has on the organization consistent with its mission and mandate, is an important variable in this study. It addresses the issue of the perception of the subordinate regarding desirable leadership traits. If TFL is perceived as being more

effective than TAL (as is expected), then it is important to enhance the TFL style wherever possible. This finding would also confirm that TFL is an appropriate leadership style for PSSOs. If TAL is perceived as more effective than TFL, then the entire concept and how it is measured must be reviewed.

The leader effectiveness variable, developed by Bass (1985) in his original leadership questionnaire, is made up of four questions which relate to the unit's effectiveness, the ability of the leader to meet the organizational needs, the ability of the leader to meet the work-related needs of subordinates, and the ability of the leader to represent the agency to higher authorities. The coefficient alpha score is .81 (Bass, 1985). It is expected that TFL will be related to higher leader effectiveness scores than TAL.

Satisfaction with the leader: Satisfaction with the leader is the perception of the subordinate as to how satisfied he/she is with the methods and the overall leadership of the leader. This variable is from the questionnaire developed by Bass (1985). The coefficient alpha is reported at .91 for the two questions which make up the sub-scale.

Leaders in a PSSO must not only exhibit leadership skills but also model the values that are required by the individual worker as he or she carries out the task. These values include commitment to the task and client, honesty, building a positive relationship based on partnership, a sense of fairness and respect, and consideration for others. The degree to which a leader exhibits these is likely the degree to which a worker in this context is satisfied with the leader. If findings of Bass, (1985); Hater and Bass, (1988); Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Delouga and Souza, (1991) are confirmed in this dissertation, TFL style would result in higher satisfaction with the leader than TAL style.

CHAPTER VII

7.0 PROFILE OF SAMPLE

7.1 SAMPLE

The overall population sampled was made up of 48 Children's Aid Societies (CASS) and 92 Children's Mental Health Centres (CMHCs) in Ontario. Of this population, 24 CASS, 61 CMHCs and seven unknown organizations (e.g. either CMHCs or CASS) responded, for an overall organizational response rate of 65.7% or 92 agencies.

A total of 472 Subordinate Questionnaires were requested and sent out to those agencies. The return rate was 374 questionnaires or 79%, with 348 consent forms being received for a return rate of 93%. This indicates all but 26 subordinate respondents returned consent forms.

Based on telephone conversations and written responses, a number of reasons were given for non-participation. These included organizational time commitments not allowing for participation

(seven organizations); Executive Directors having major difficulties with the Board or staff (three organizations); Executive Directors feeling they were either too new in the position, or were on a contract which would expire during the period of the study (five organizations).

Based on the high response rate it seems reasonable to assume that the sample is representative of child welfare PSSOs. The sample will now be described in detail with tables at the end of the chapter supporting the narrative.

7.2 ORGANIZATIONAL DATA

The organizations will be described under organizational characteristics, funding, and staffing.

7.2.1 Organizational Characteristics

A majority of the organizations were located in population centres of 50,000 or more (72%). One-half of those organizations or 35% of the total were located in urban areas of 300,000 people or more.

Government-sponsored agencies constituted 96% of the sample, three percent reported being sponsored by the local community (e.g. professional or service groups) and only one percent reported they were sponsored by a religious organization. None indicated being sponsored by a consumer group. It would appear this is reflective both of the funding base of these organizations, as well as the legislation which originally developed these services (i.e. The Child Welfare Act and the Children's Mental Health Centres Act).

A vast majority of the organizations delivered services from multiple sites (73%). Almost one-third delivered services from three to five sites (cf. Table 1: Number of Sites).

The organizations provided a range of services to children, including day treatment, residential services, outclient services, and child protection services. Most organizations provided more than one major programme. The 29% providing child protection services are primarily CASSs. The majority of agencies provided residential and outclient services (cf. Table 2: Services Provided).

The majority of the organizations (58%) have been in existence for more than 20 years, contributing to a sector that is well established in importance and mandate (cf. Table 3: Organizational Longevity).

7.2.2 Organizational Budgets

With one exception, all organizations received more than 50% of their budgets from government grants. In fact, 85% of the organizations providing responses to the question received 95% of their budget from government grants (cf. Table 4: Amount of Government Grant).

Of those organizations needing to raise additional funds, 16 (17%) reported fee-for-service arrangements. A majority of those funds come from other government-funded organizations responsible for finding suitable services for their clients. Only 32 agencies or 34.8% reported receiving additional income from charitable fundraising (cf. Table 5: Amount of Fundraising).

Of those organizations soliciting charitable funds, the majority, 19 out of 32 (61%), raise a relatively small portion of their budgets from this source. It should, however, be noted that there is a range of budgets represented in the sample and two percent of one

agency's budget to be fundraised may be quite modest when compared to a larger agency's two percent. The relatively small sample of agencies doing fundraising will make it difficult to show results of any significance in the analysis related to this variable.

The size of the organizations, based on overall budgets, is quite varied (cf. Table 6: Organizational Budget Size). While the median budget is \$2.63 million, with the largest number of organizations (24.4%) having a budget of between \$1.0 to \$1.9 million, the range of budgets extends to \$66 million.

7.2.3 Agency Staffing

Almost one-half of the agencies providing information as to the number of staff, have between 11 and 50 employees (cf. Table 7: Full-Time Equivalents).

The data suggests the work force of a typical organization would be made up of five percent psychologists, 18% support staff, 30% social workers, 40% child care workers, and 16% other. This indicates a highly professionalized workplace.

Slightly more than half, or 50 out of the 92 organizations are unionized to some degree, with the mean for all agencies being 41% of the work force being a part of a union.

Organizations in the sample reported having a relatively low absenteeism rate with a majority of the agencies (54.7%) having an absenteeism rate of four to six days per employee per year (cf. Table 8: 1991 Average Employee Absenteeism Rates).

The 1991 annual employee turnover rate appeared to be low indicating a fairly stable work force. Over two-thirds (70%) of the agencies reported a turnover rate of ten percent or less, with a median of eight percent in 1991. In 1989, however, the median was 15%, indicating a much higher turnover rate. It would appear that the turnover rate is a reflection of the economic climate. When the economy is robust and growing, turnover rates are higher than when there is an economic downturn and job security concerns predominate (cf. Table 9: Turnover Rates).

7.3 SUBORDINATE DATA

7.3.1 Subordinate Characteristics

The 374 subordinates completing the questionnaires were primarily supervisory or management (81%), with the rest being made up of line staff (19%). The line staff were secretaries or executive assistants. Males made up 36% of the sample, and females, 64%. It is interesting to note the contrast with the Executive Directors, where the reverse gender make-up exists (75% male and 25% female). This is reflective of the gender-based division of labour which typically exists between executives and supervisors in human service organizations. As can be seen from Table 10 (Subordinate Age), the majority (77%) are between 31 and 50 years old.

The subordinates tended to be highly educated with 42% of the sample having completed at least a Master's Degree. The high level of education appears to be consistent with the specialized nature of the work activity. Subordinates are required to interpret legislation, comprehend and implement sophisticated psychological or neurological treatment, and generally

administer highly complex programmes, giving direction to other professionals as required (cf. Table 11: Subordinate Education).

Approximately 44% of the subordinates have been in their positions for three years or less, with 68% having been in the position five years or less (cf. Table 12: Subordinate Longevity). This would appear to indicate a fairly high mobility rate which is not true of all human service settings. In a study of managers in the Department of Social Services, State of South Carolina, Hayden (1991) found that 84% of the managers had been in the same department for more than five years, and 47% had been in the same management position for five years or less. In that sample only 20% had a Master's Degree or better. It may be that the lower longevity level in the current sample is due in part to the higher educational level.

Two-thirds of the subordinates, or 68.5%, reported being absent from work less than four days over the previous year. This compares with 9.3% of the agencies reporting an agency absentee rate per employee of less than four days per year. Another 99 or 28% stated that they were absent between four to six days on an annual basis compared with the agency reporting that 55% of the

employees were absent between four and six days. If one assumes the agency absentee rates are accurate, the conclusion that can be drawn is that either the respondents of the Subordinate Questionnaires have over-estimated their attendance, or they really do take fewer sick days than the average employee at the agency. The latter case could be likely because of their reporting relationship to the Executive Director and/or the level of responsibility they have which enhances their level of ownership.

Hours worked data indicates that 62% of the subordinates work in excess of a 40 hour work week. It may be that when employees report the number of hours worked they over-estimate their efforts. In most organizations, however, weekly time sheets are required documenting the number of hours worked. While employees may not be able to accurately estimate the average number of hours worked within two hour increments, it is reasonable to assume they know if they are working more than the required work week.

Since at many agencies, workers are salaried on a 35 to 37.5 hour work week (Ministry of Community and Social Services, Wage Compensation Project, September, 1990), it is likely that in excess of 62% of subordinates work more than the expected work week (cf. Table 13: Hours Worked).

7.3.2 Subordinate Perceptions

A number of questions are related to the perceptions of subordinates. These areas, made up of subordinate job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceptions of leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader, will now be reported on.

The sample reflects a high level of job satisfaction among the subordinates with a median of 5.0. With a mean of 4.8, and 82% reporting a satisfaction of four or better on a six-point scale, the distribution is skewed to the left indicating a strong level of job satisfaction (cf. Table 14: Job Satisfaction).

Agency commitment is also relatively strong, although not quite as high as job satisfaction. The empirical rule would indicate 68% of subordinates have a commitment score of between 3.4 and 5.4 on a six-point

scale. As can be seen from Table 15, (Agency Commitment), 71.5% of the respondents reported either a four or five, indicating less variability than the empirical rule would suggest and a tighter distribution pattern reflected in a standard deviation of .711. This appears to be a fairly homogeneous group on this variable.

Again, the distribution for leader effectiveness was skewed to the left with a median of 3.0 and a mean of 2.8. This indicates a high perception of leader effectiveness in the sample. With a standard deviation of .732, at least 68% of the sample falls between 2.25 and 3.75 (cf. Table 16: Leader Effectiveness). The standard deviation is a measure of variability and these standard deviations of less than one indicate a relatively narrow band of variability.

Satisfaction with the leader is even higher than the perception of leader effectiveness as shown by the median of 3.5 and the mean of 3.12. As with the other measures of subordinate perception, the distribution is skewed to the left (cf. Table 17: Satisfaction with the Leader).

7.3.3 Overall Scores for Leadership Perceptions

The major measurement of leadership style in this study is the subordinates' perceptions of their superior's performance in the areas of transactional and transformational leadership. The results indicate that the sample of leaders is perceived as being highly transformational (mean = 2.93) and having an extremely low transactional score (mean = 1.2). The distribution is skewed to the left for transformational and to the right for transactional (cf. Tables 18 and 19).

Upon reviewing the results, the leadership scores appear extreme. House (1977), in his description of propositions of charismatic leadership, indicates that charismatic leaders will only surface if the work lends itself to being defined in ideological and value terms with which subordinates can identify. A sector which deals with helping emotionally hurting children and families can easily fit this criteria, facilitating the emergence of transformational leadership. Bennis (1977) draws the conclusion from his research on charismatic leadership that it is not unusual to find these characteristics in a broad range of successful organizations. Finally, in a study by Clover (1990) of 40 air force

cadet squadrons, involving 4,400 cadets, he reported mean transformational leadership scores of 3.46 to 2.86 with standard deviations between 1.12 and 1.06.

7.4 LEADERSHIP DATA

The sample of Executive Directors was made up of 74% male and 26% female. This is interesting in the light of the majority of the subordinates being female.

A majority (58%) were between 41 and 50 years old (cf. Table 20: Age of Leaders). There were no Executive Directors in the sample over the age of 60. It would be interesting to investigate further to determine what some of the factors might be for this relatively young sample.

While the Executive Directors had extensive experience as leaders with 48% reporting more than ten years as Chief Executive Officers, (cf. Table 21: Leader Experience), the distribution for longevity in the same position was fairly well distributed (cf. Table 22: Longevity in Same Position). This would seem to indicate that the experience had been achieved with other organizations.

The median salary reported is between \$71,000 and \$80,000 per year. The top ten percent of the sample report a salary in excess of \$91,000. Reflecting the educational level of the subordinates, the Executive Directors are highly educated. Eighty percent of the sample have an educational level of a Master's Degree or better (cf. Table 23: Leader Educational Level).

TABLE 1: NUMBER OF SITES

# OF SITES	FREQUENCY	%
1	24	27
2	15	16.9
3 - 5	27	30.3
6 - 8	13	14.6
> 8	10	11.2
	<hr/> 89	<hr/> 100.0

TABLE 2: SERVICES PROVIDED

SERVICES	FREQUENCY	% OF AGENCIES
DAY TREATMENT	46	50
RESIDENTIAL	59	64
OUTCLIENT	60	65
CHILD PROTECTION	27	29

TABLE 3: ORGANIZATIONAL LONGEVITY

LONGEVITY	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
<5 YEARS	3	3.4	3.4
6 - 10 YEARS	7	7.2	10.6
11 - 15 YEARS	11	12.4	23.0
16 - 20 YEARS	16	18.0	41.0
> 20 YEARS	52	58.4	100.0
	—		
	89		

TABLE 4: AMOUNT OF GOVERNMENT GRANT

% OF BUDGET FROM GOVT GRANTS	# OF AGENCIES	% OF AGENCIES
<50	1	1.2
50 TO 75	3	3.7
76 TO 94	8	9.7
95 TO 99	33	40.2
100	37	45.2
	—	
	82	100.0

TABLE 5: AMOUNT OF FUNDRAISING

% OF BUDGET FROM FUNDRAISING	FREQUENCY	% OF AGENCIES
0	60	65.2
1 - 2	19	20.7
3 - 5	11	12.1
6 - 21	2	2.1
	<hr/> 92	<hr/> 100.0

TABLE 6: ORGANIZATIONAL BUDGET SIZE

BUDGET IN MILLIONS	FREQUENCY	ORGANIZATIONS	
		%	CUM %
< .999	14	16.3	16.3
1.0 - 1.9	21	24.4	40.7
2.0 - 2.9	13	15.1	55.8
3.0 - 3.9	8	8.2	64.0
4.0 - 4.9	5	6.0	70.0
5.0 - 5.9	7	7.9	77.9
6.0 - 6.9	1	1.2	79.1
7.0 - 7.9	4	4.6	83.7
8.0 -10.9	3	3.5	87.2
11.0 -13.9	3	3.5	90.7
> 14.0	8	9.3	100.0
	<hr/> 87		

TABLE 7: FULL-TIME EQUIVALENTS

# OF EMPLOYEES	FREQUENCY	ORGANIZATIONS	
		%	CUM %
< 10	5	5.7	5.7
11 - 30	21	23.9	29.5
31 - 50	18	20.5	50.0
51 - 70	12	13.6	63.6
71 - 90	11	12.5	76.1
> 90	21	23.9	100.0
	— 88		

TABLE 8: 1991 AVERAGE EMPLOYEE ABSENTEEISM RATES

AVERAGE DAYS ABSENT PER YEAR PER EMPLOYEE	FREQUENCY # OF ORGANIZATIONS	ORGANIZATIONS	
		%	CUM %
0 - 3	8	9.3	9.3
4 - 6	47	54.7	64.0
7 - 9	20	23.3	87.2
10 - 12	6	7.0	94.2
> 12	5	5.8	100.0
	— 86		

TABLE 9: TURNOVER RATES

AGENCIES										
% TURNOVER	1989			1990			1991			
	RATE	FREQ	%	CUM %	FREQ	%	CUM %	FREQ	%	CUM %
0 - 5	18	22	21	22	26	26	36	42	42	
6 - 10	12	14	36	19	22	48	24	28	70	
11 - 15	15	18	54	18	21	69	9	11	81	
16 - 20	15	18	72	11	13	82	10	12	93	
21 - 25	9	12	84	5	6	88	2	2	95	
> 25	13	16	100	10	12	100	4	5	100	
	—			—			—			
	82			85			85			
MEAN	17%			15%			9%			
MEDIAN	15%			11%			8%			

TABLE 10: SUBORDINATE AGE

AGE	FREQUENCY	SUBORDINATE	
		%	CUM %
< 30	35	9.4	9.4
31 - 40	136	36.5	45.8
41 - 50	151	40.5	86.3
51 - 60	42	11.3	97.6
> 61	9	2.4	100.0
	<hr/> 373		

TABLE 11: SUBORDINATE EDUCATION

EDUCATION LEVEL	FREQUENCY	SUBORDINATE	
		%	CUM %
HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	56	15.1	15.1
COMM.COLLEGE DEGREE	84	22.7	37.6
BACHELOR'S DEGREE	70	18.8	56.5
MASTER'S DEGREE	132	35.5	91.9
DOCTORATE DEGREE	26	7.0	98.9
OTHER	4	1.1	100.0
	<hr/> 372		

TABLE 12: SUBORDINATE LONGEVITY

LONGEVITY IN POSITION	FREQUENCY	SUBORDINATE	
		%	CUM %
< 3 YEARS	166	44.7	44.7
4 - 5 YEARS	87	23.5	68.2
6 - 7 YEARS	38	10.2	78.4
8 - 9 YEARS	25	6.7	85.2
> 10 YEARS	53	14.3	100.0
	<hr/> 369		

TABLE 13: WORK WEEK

HOURS	FREQUENCY	SUBORDINATES	
		%	CUM %
< 40 HOURS	144	38.7	38.7
41 - 42 HOURS	72	19.4	58.1
43 - 44 HOURS	40	10.8	68.9
45 - 46 HOURS	51	13.7	82.5
47 - 48 HOURS	27	7.3	89.8
> 48 HOURS	38	10.2	100.0
	<hr/> 372		

TABLE 14: JOB SATISFACTION

VALUE	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
1.0 - 1.9	4	1.1	1.1
2.0 - 2.9	16	4.3	5.4
3.0 - 3.9	47	12.6	18.0
4.0 - 4.9	83	22.4	40.4
5.0 - 5.9	156	42.1	82.5
6.0	65	17.5	100.0
	<hr/> 371		

MEDIAN = 5.0; MEAN = 4.8; STANDARD DEV. = 1.03

TABLE 15: AGENCY COMMITMENT

VALUE	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
1	1	.3	.3
2	5	1.4	1.7
3	21	5.8	7.5
4	170	47.2	54.7
5	163	45.3	100.0
	<hr/> 360		

MEDIAN = 4.0; MEAN = 4.4; STANDARD DEV. = .71

TABLE 16: LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

VALUE	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
0.0 - .9	2	.6	.6
1.0 - 1.9	46	12.6	13.2
2.0 - 2.9	151	34.7	47.9
3.0 - 3.9	173	47.4	95.3
4.0	17	4.7	100.0
	<hr/> 365		

MEDIAN = 3.0; MEAN = 2.79; STANDARD DEV. = .73

TABLE 17: SATISFACTION WITH THE LEADER

VALUE	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
0.0 - .9	16	4.4	4.4
1.0 - 1.9	33	9.1	13.5
2.0 - 2.9	34	9.4	22.9
3.0 - 3.9	131	36.2	59.1
4.0	148	40.9	100.0
	<hr/> 362		

MEDIAN = 3.5; MEAN = 3.12; STANDARD DEV. = 1.08

TABLE 18: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP SCORES

VALUE	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
0.0 - .9	3	.8	.8
1.0 - 1.49	15	4.0	4.8
1.5 - 1.99	30	8.0	12.8
2.0 - 2.49	35	10.4	22.2
2.5 - 2.99	90	24.1	46.3
3.0 - 3.49	120	32.3	78.6
3.5 - 3.99	76	19.9	98.7
4.0	5	1.3	100.0
	<hr/> 374		

MEDIAN = 3.06; MEAN = 2.93; STANDARD DEV. = .72

TABLE 19: TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP SCORES

VALUE	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
0.0 - 0.49	22	6.1	6.1
0.5 - 0.99	104	29.1	35.2
1.0 - 1.49	134	37.4	72.6
1.5 - 1.99	75	21.0	93.6
2.0 - 2.49	22	6.1	99.7
2.5 - 2.99	1	.3	100.0
3.0 - 4.0	0		
	<hr/> 358		

MEDIAN = 1.19; MEAN = 1.21; STANDARD DEV. = .48

TABLE 20: AGE OF LEADERS

AGE	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
< 31	1	1.1	1.1
31 - 40	18	19.6	20.7
41 - 50	53	57.6	78.3
51 - 60	20	21.7	100.0
	<hr/> 92		

TABLE 21: LEADER EXPERIENCE

YRS. OF EXPERIENCE	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
< 2	7	7.6	7.6
2 - 3	11	12.0	19.6
4 - 5	12	13.0	32.6
6 - 7	13	14.1	46.7
8 - 9	5	5.4	52.2
> 10	44	47.8	100.0
	<hr/> 92		

TABLE 22: LONGEVITY IN SAME POSITION

LONGEVITY IN YEARS	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
< 2	17	18.5	18.5
2 - 3	12	13.0	31.5
4 - 5	14	15.2	46.7
6 - 7	17	18.5	65.2
8 - 9	10	10.9	76.1
> 10	22	23.9	100.0
	—		
	92		

TABLE 23: LEADER EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	FREQUENCY	%	CUM %
HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA	0	0	0
COMM. COLLEGE DEGREE	3	3.3	3.3
BACHELOR'S DEGREE	13	14.1	17.4
MASTER'S DEGREE	61	66.3	83.7
DOCTORATE	15	16.3	100.0
	—		
	92		

CHAPTER VIII

8.0 DATA ANALYSIS

The research questions cluster around the subordinates' perceptions of their superior's leadership styles and three additional areas. The first area centers on specific subordinate perceptions (e.g. job satisfaction, commitment, satisfaction with the leader, absenteeism 2, turnover 2, etc.) and characteristics (e.g. age, sex, education, etc.). The second area looks at agency characteristics (e.g. size, agency longevity, number of sites, % of budget fundraised, budget growth, turnover 1, absenteeism 1, etc.). The third area explores leader attributes (e.g. age, sex, education, experience, etc.). In order to get an overview of some of the possible relationships that exist, a correlation matrix was developed for each area to complement some of the statistics used in the specific research questions.

The independent variable*, leadership style, is measured in three ways: the interval score for transactional leadership (TAL) and transformational leadership (TFL), the nominal high and low TAL and TFL style variable, and the nominal leadership quadrants. The output variables discussed in Chapter VI will be considered the dependent variables. Characteristics of the leader, subordinates, or the organization will be referred to as intervening variables. It should be noted that the n size of subordinates changes for the various tables. This results from the encouragement to subordinate respondents to leave specific questions in the questionnaire unanswered if they had no opinion or were unsure of the response. Consequently, this reduced the overall number of responses available for certain analyses.

* Since the study is not an experimental design, formally there are no independent or dependent variables. There are, rather, a number of relationships among variables that are being explored. However, for discussion purposes, the designated independent variable of interest in this study is leadership style.

In performing statistical tests, these variables may temporarily be designated as either independent or dependent variables. For example, when exploring job satisfaction, work week, and commitment, a regression analysis is used where these become the predictor or independent variables. When examining characteristics of the agencies, the leaders or the subordinates, e.g. agency size, education, or sex, etc., these characteristics become the independent variables. The temporary designations will not be used since it is understood all these tests and analyses are to determine more fully the effect the independent variable of leadership has on the output variables.

8.1 SUBORDINATE PERCEPTIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS

A correlation matrix was developed in order to test the null hypothesis that the correlation in the population is equal to zero. Table 24 reports the results on the subordinate characteristics and perceptions. Even though this matrix does not relate to any particular question, it provides an overall perspective on some of the subordinate characteristics and perceptions.

The null hypothesis was rejected because transactional leadership scores yielded low negative correlations that had significance at the .001 level with job satisfaction, commitment, satisfaction with the leader, and leader effectiveness. As job satisfaction, commitment, and leader effectiveness scores went down, transactional leadership scores went up. A slight negative correlation existed with unit effectiveness, indicating a significance at the .01 level. Specifically, as unit effectiveness went down, transactional leadership went up.

Transformational leadership resulted in moderate positive correlations for job satisfaction and commitment at the .001 level of significance. Therefore as transformational leadership scores went up, job satisfaction and commitment went up as well. Transformational leadership was highly correlated to satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness at the .001 level of significance. It was a positive relationship indicating that as transformational leadership went up, so did satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness.

TABLE 24: SUBORDINATE PERCEPTIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS

	JOB SATIS- FACTION	COMMIT- MENT	LEADER SATIS- FACTION	LEADER EFFEC- TIVENESS	TRANSAC- TIONAL	TRANSFOR- MATIONAL
EMPLOYEE LONGEVITY	.14*	.17*	.14*	.17**	- .13	.07
EMPLOYEE AGE	.11	.03	.13	.13	- .10	.15*
EMPLOYEE EDUCATION	- .06	- .16*	- .10	- .12	.09	- .03
TURNOVER 2	- .07	- .11	- .13	- .13	.11	- .09
ABSENTEE- ISM 2	- .15*	- .15*	- .10	- .08	.10	- .13
WORK WEEK	- .006	.07	- .09	- .06	.04	.004
JOB SATIS- FACTION	1.000	.47**	.45**	.39**	- .18**	.40**
COMMITMENT	.47**	1.00	.39**	.39**	- .20**	.39**
LEADER SATIS- FACTION	.45**	.39**	1.00	.78**	- .33**	.80**
LEADER EFFECTIVE- NESS	.39**	.39**	.78**	1.00	- .31**	.78**
TRANSAC- TIONAL	- .18**	- .20**	- .33*	-.31**	1.00	- .28**
TRANSFOR- MATIONAL	.40**	.39**	.80**	.78**	-.28**	1.00

N = 305 cases; * .01 level of sign.; ** .001 level of sign.

An analysis of the research questions for the subordinate specific data yielded the following results.

8.1.1 Job Satisfaction, Work Week and Commitment

Are job satisfaction, hours worked, and commitment of subordinates predictors of transformational and transactional leadership?

<u>TESTS PERFORMED</u>	<u>RESULTS</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANT</u>
1. REGRESSION	- Job Satisfaction and Commitment predictors of TFL and TAL	Yes
2. TWO WAY ANOVA	- Main effect for TFL and Job Satisfaction	Yes
	- Main effect for TFL and TAL with Commitment	Yes
	- Mean scores of quads point to relationships between TFL and TAL	No

A regression analysis was completed to determine whether these subordinate factors were predictors of transformational and transactional leadership. When the independent variable TAL was used with the predictors subordinate job satisfaction, subordinate commitment to the agency, and the hours worked by the subordinate, the overall model, while accounting for only 5.5% of the variance, was highly significant ($F(3,345) = 6.68$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .055$). Two variables were identified as significant predictors, commitment ($B = -.09$, $T = -2.33$, $p < .05$) and job satisfaction ($B = -.06$, $T = -2.19$, $p < .05$). Both predictor variables were inversely related to transactional leadership, showing a slight but definite relationship which was highly significant (cf. Table 25: Regression Model for Transactional Leadership and Commitment, Satisfaction, Work Week). As commitment and job satisfaction went up, transactional leadership went down.

**TABLE 25: REGRESSION MODEL FOR TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP
AND COMMITMENT, SATISFACTION, WORK WEEK**

VARIABLE	B	T	SIGNIF. T
COMMITMENT	-.09	-2.33	.020 *
JOB SATISFACTION	-.06	-2.19	.029 *
WORK WEEK	.01	.89	.375

OVERALL MODEL $F(3,345) = 6.68$, $P = .000$, $R^2 = .055$

* SIGNIF. < .05

When transformational leadership was used with the predictors, the overall model was significant, accounting for 21% of the variance ($F(3,361) = 31.78$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .21$). Commitment ($B = .26$, $T = 4.88$, $p < .001$) and job satisfaction ($B = .19$, $T = 5.14$, $p < .001$) were the significant predictors, positively related to transformational leadership in a low but definite relationship (cf. Table 26: Regression Model for Transformational Leadership and Commitment, Satisfaction, Work Week).

TABLE 26: REGRESSION MODEL FOR TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND COMMITMENT, SATISFACTION, WORK WEEK

VARIABLE	B	T	SIGNIF. T
COMMITMENT	.26	4.88	.000 ***
JOB SATISFACTION	.19	5.14	.000 ***
WORK WEEK	9.5780112E-04	.05	.961

OVERALL MODEL $F(3,361) = 31.78$, $P = .000$, $R^2 = .21$

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01, *** SIGNIF. AT .001

In order to further investigate the relationship between the various combinations of leadership styles, a two way anova was conducted using the nominal leadership variables for high and low transactional leadership (Aquad) and high and low transformational leadership (Fquad). When the dependent variable, subordinate job satisfaction, was looked at, there was no main effect with transactional leadership. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, had a main effect that was significant at the .000 level. The mean scores for job satisfaction indicated that as transformational leadership went from low to high, the job satisfaction scores

increased from 4.5 to 5.1 on a six-point scale showing a positive relationship. There was no interaction between the two styles on this variable (cf. Table 27: Two Way Anova - Job Satisfaction).

TABLE 27: TWO WAY ANOVA F VALUES
JOB SATISFACTION BY TAL (AQUAD) AND TFL (FQUAD)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	SIGNIF. OF F
AQUAD	1,346	2.66	2.66	2.72	.100
FQUAD	1,346	25.72	25.72	26.26	.000 ***
AQUAD BY FQUAD	1,346	.04	.04	.05	.832

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01, *** SIGNIF. AT .001

The dependent variable, subordinate commitment, was then examined as to differences between leadership styles. A main effect was reported between transactional leadership style (Aquad) and commitment at the

.006 level of significance. As transactional leadership moved from low to high, commitment mean scores dropped from 4.5 to 4.3, indicating a slight but significant negative relationship. As leadership style moved from low to high transformational style (Fquad), commitment mean scores went from 4.2 to 4.7 on a five-point scale, indicating a strong positive relationship. The test revealed no interaction of significance (cf. Table 28: Two Way Anova - Commitment).

TABLE 28: TWO WAY ANOVA F VALUES

COMMITMENT BY TAL (AQUAD) AND TFL (FQUAD)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	SIGNIF. OF F
AQUAD	1,341	3.35	3.35	7.54	.006**
FQUAD	1,341	17.23	17.23	38.70	.000***
AQUAD BY FQUAD	1,341	.41	.41	.92	.338

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01, *** SIGNIF. AT .00

The dependent variable, work week, revealed no main effect for either leadership style and no interactions between the independent and dependent variables (cf. Table 29: Two Way Anova - Work Week).

TABLE 29: TWO WAY ANOVA F VALUES

WORK WEEK BY TAL (AQUAD) AND TFL (FQUAD)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	SIGNIF. OF F
AQUAD	1,346	.06	.06	.02	.886
FQUAD	1,346	.26	.26	.09	.765
AQUAD BY FQUAD	1,346	6.89	6.89	2.37	.125

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01, *** SIGNIF. AT .00

The independent variables were the nominal leadership quadrants. They were arranged from one to four. Quad 1 contained leaders that were low in both transactional and transformational leadership relative to the overall sample. Quad 2 were leaders that were high in transactional leadership (TAL) and low in transformational leadership (TFL). Quad 3 involved those leaders perceived as high TAL and high TFL. Quad 4 contained leaders that were high TFL and low TAL.

While there was no interaction between transformational and transactional leadership style and the dependent variables, and the differences between the mean scores were non-significant, it is interesting to note that the mean scores for job satisfaction ranged from a high of 5.14 in the high transformational, low transactional group to a low of 4.40 in the high transactional, low transformational group. As well, the mean scores for subordinate commitment ranged from a high of 4.68 in the high transformational, low transactional group to a low of 4.02 in the low transactional, high transformational group. In each of the mentioned comparisons, the high transactional groups had the two lower mean scores and the high transformational groups

had the two higher mean scores (cf. Table 30: Mean Scores, Quads by Job Satisfaction, Commitment, Work Week).

**TABLE 30: MEAN SCORES - QUADS BY
JOB SATISFACTION, COMMITMENT, WORK WEEK**

		QUAD MEANS			
		1	2	3	4
TF LEADERSHIP		LO	LO	HI	HI
TA LEADERSHIP		LO	HI	HI	LO
VARIABLE	NUMBER	MN	MN	MN	MN
JOB SATIS.	346	4.60	4.40	4.98	5.14
COMMITMENT	342	4.29	4.02	4.55	4.68
WORK WEEK	347	2.74	2.48	2.82	2.05

8.1.2 Absenteeism 2 and Turnover 2

What is the effect of transformational and transactional leadership on subordinate absenteeism 2, (i.e. subordinate attendance), and subordinate turnover 2, (i.e. retention)?

<u>TESTS PERFORMED</u>	<u>RESULTS</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANT</u>
TWO WAY ANOVA	- Absenteeism approaching significance	No
	- Mean scores for quads pointing to a relationship between TFL and low scores	No
	- Turnover no findings	No

A two way anova was used to examine whether there was a difference between high and low transactional leadership (Aquad) and high and low transformational leadership (Fquad) in relationship to absenteeism and turnover as reported by the subordinate. The results showed no significant differences or interactions (cf. Tables 31: Two Way Anova - Absenteeism 2, and 32: Two Way Anova - Turnover 2).

The overall lack of significant relationships between the independent and dependent variables appeared consistent with the findings of the correlation matrix presented earlier. For these variables, the null hypothesis was confirmed, i.e. that the correlation in the population is equal to zero.

TABLE 31: TWO WAY ANOVA F VALUES
ABSENTEEISM 2 BY TAL (AQUAD) AND TFL (FQUAD)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	SIGNIF. OF F
AQUAD	1,343	.76	.76	1.03	.31
FQUAD	1,343	2.48	2.48	3.38	.07
AQUAD BY FQUAD	1,343	.21	.21	.29	.59

TABLE 32: TWO WAY ANOVA F VALUES

TURNOVER 2 BY TAL (AQUAD) AND TFL (FQUAD)

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	SIGNIF. OF F
AQUAD	1,296	1.61	1.61	1.86	.17
FQUAD	1,296	.19	.19	.21	.64
AQUAD BY FQUAD	1,296	2.02	2.02	2.33	.13

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01,

*** SIGNIF. AT .001

While no significant results were found, the mean scores for absenteeism were lowest in the high transformational, low transactional group and highest in the high transactional, low transformational group (cf. Table 33: Mean Scores - Leadership Quads by Absenteeism and Turnover).

TABLE 33: MEAN SCORES

LEADERSHIP QUADS BY ABSENTEEISM AND TURNOVER

VARIABLE	TFL TAL N	QUAD MEANS			
		LO LO 1	LO HI 2	HI HI 3	HI LO 4
ABSENTEEISM 2	343	1.55	1.60	1.47	1.33
TURNOVER 2	296	1.88	1.86	2.08	1.76

8.1.3 Leader Effectiveness

Does transformational or transactional leadership affect subordinate perception of leader effectiveness?

<u>TESTS PERFORMED</u>	<u>RESULTS</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANT</u>
1. TWO WAY ANOVA	- Main effect between TAL and leader effectiveness - Main effect between TFL and leader effectiveness - Interaction	Yes Yes Yes
2. SCHEFFE	- High TFL quads have high leader effectiveness scores	Yes
3. REGRESSION	- Meeting of subordinate needs predicts TAL - All items of leader effectiveness predict TFL	Yes Yes

A two way anova was completed in order to determine whether a difference existed between the independent transactional and transformational leadership variables (Aquad and Fquad) and leader effectiveness, the dependent variable. There was a negative relationship between transactional leadership and leader effectiveness. As transactional leadership style went from low to high, leader effectiveness mean scores decreased, moving from 2.92 to 2.69. This difference was significant at the .001 level. The independent variable, transformational leadership, had a positive main effect. As TFL went from low to high, the dependent variable mean scores increased from 2.36 to 3.26 at the .001 level of significance (cf. Table 34: Two Way Anova - Leadership Style by Leader Effectiveness).

TABLE 34: TWO WAY ANOVA F VALUES

LEADERSHIP STYLE BY LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

TAL (AQUAD) BY TFL (FQUAD)

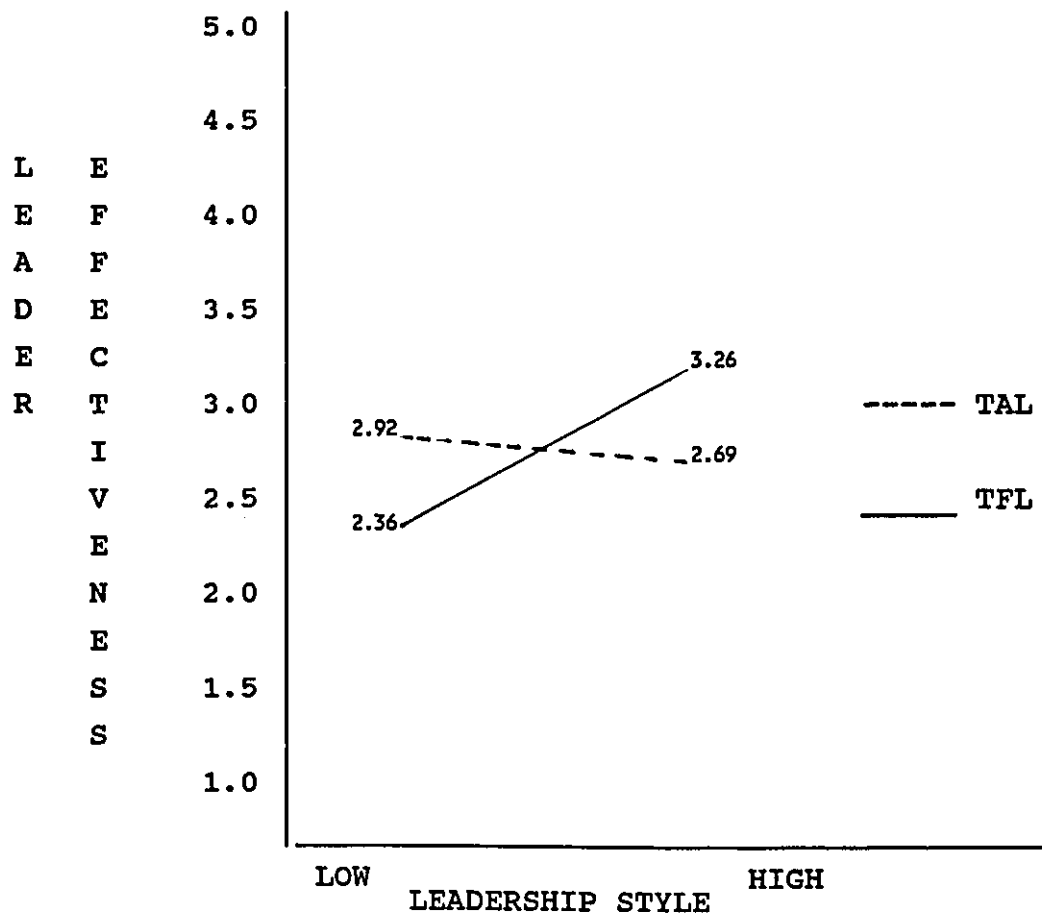
SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	SIGNIF. OF F
AQUAD	1,341	4.20	4.20	13.75	.000 ***
FQUAD	1,341	64.97	64.97	212.44	.000 ***
AQUAD BY FQUAD	1,341	2.71	2.71	8.86	.003 **

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01,

*** SIGNIF. AT .001

There was a significant interaction between transformational and transactional leadership at $p < .01$ ($F(1,341) = 8.86, p = .003$). As transformational leadership increased, leader effectiveness increased, and as transactional leadership went from low to high, leader effectiveness decreased (cf. Table 35: TFL by TAL with Leader Effectiveness Interaction).

TABLE 35: TFL (FQUAD) BY TAL (AQUAD) WITH LEADER EFFECTIVENESS INTERACTION



A Scheffe test was conducted in order to determine which quads were different from one another. The results revealed that the two high transformational groups of leaders, i.e. high transformational, low transactional leaders with a mean score of 3.28, and high transformational, high transactional leaders with a mean score of 3.23, were significantly different from both groups of low transformational leaders, i.e. the low transactional, low transformational leadership group with a mean score of 2.56 and the high transactional and low transformational group with a mean score of 2.15. The high transformational leaders had higher leader effectiveness scores than leaders with the lower transformational leadership ratings. This could be an indicator that leaders who are perceived as effective use primarily transformational leadership or use high levels of both styles of leadership influence.

Furthermore, high transactional, low transformational leaders received lower effectiveness ratings and were significantly different from low transactional, low transformational leaders. In fact, of all the quad groups, the lowest leader effectiveness ratings were received by high transactional, low transformational leaders (cf. Table 36: Mean Scores & Scheffe Comparisons: Leadership Style by Leader Effectiveness).

**TABLE 36: MEAN SCORES AND SCHEFFE COMPARISONS -
LEADERSHIP STYLE BY LEADER EFFECTIVENESS**

		GROUP & MEANS			
		1	2	3	4
TF LEADERSHIP TA LEADERSHIP		LO	LO	HI	HI
		LO	HI	HI	LO
SCHEFFE COMPARISON	N	77	102	61	113
GROUP	345	2.56	2.15	3.23	3.28
4		*	*		
3		*	*		
2		*			
1					

* DENOTES PAIRS OF GROUPS DIFFERENT AT THE .05 LEVEL

A regression analysis was executed using leadership style scores and the variables making up leader effectiveness, which included meeting subordinate needs, unit effectiveness, meeting agency needs, and meeting external needs of the agency. With transactional leadership and all four predictor variables included, the overall model was significant, accounting for 11% of the variance ($F(4,353) = 10.38, p < .001, R^2 = .11$). The only variable that was a significant predictor of transactional leadership, however, was the leader's ability to meet subordinate needs. A negative relationship existed between the two variables, significant at the .001 level. As transactional leadership scores went up, the meeting of subordinate needs went down (cf. Table 37: Regression Model for Transactional Leadership).

**TABLE 37: REGRESSION MODEL FOR TRANSACTIONAL
LEADERSHIP & EFFECTIVENESS INDICATORS**

SOURCE	B	T	SIGNIF. T
SUBORDINATE NEEDS	- .14	-3.97	.0001 ***
UNIT EFFECTIVENESS	-3.68E-03	- .11	.91
AGENCY NEEDS	3.45E-03	.10	.92
EXTERNAL EFFECT	-8.20E-03	- .25	.80

OVERALL MODEL $F(3,353) = 10.38$, $P = .0000$, $R^2 = .11$

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01, *** SIGNIF. AT .001

When transformational leadership was used in the model with the four predictor variables, the model was highly significant, ($F(4,369) = 91.65, p < .001, R^2 = .50$). All variables were significant predictors of a positive relationship between the independent and dependent variables, except for unit effectiveness. As the meeting of subordinate needs, agency needs and external effectiveness scores increase, so do transformational leadership scores. Unit effectiveness was negatively related to TFL scores and significant at $< .05$ (cf. Table 38: Regression Model for Transformational Leadership).

**TABLE 38: REGRESSION MODEL FOR TRANSFORMATIONAL
LEADERSHIP**

SOURCE	B	T	SIGNIF.T
SUBORDINATE NEEDS	.18	4.60	.0000 ***
UNIT EFFECTIVENESS	-.08	-2.05	.04 *
AGENCY NEEDS	.11	2.81	.005 **
EXTERNAL EFFECT.	.26	7.27	.0000 ***

OVERALL MODEL $F(4,369) = 91.65$, $P .0000$, $R^2 = .50$

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01,

*** SIGNIF. AT .001

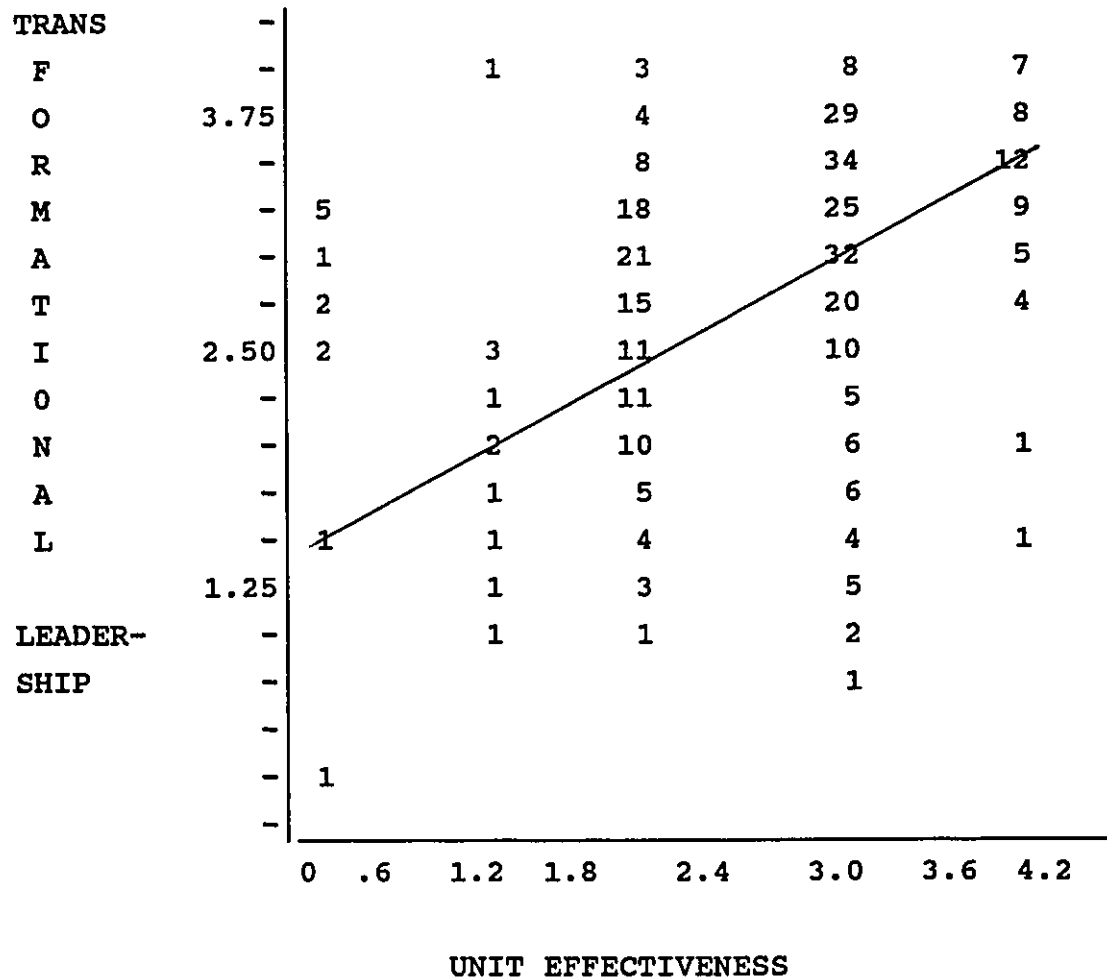
In order to further explore the relationship between unit effectiveness and transformational leadership style, a regression model was completed using unit effectiveness and transformational leadership. The overall model results were significant ($F(1,372) = 43.24$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .10$). The model indicated a positive linear relationship. As unit effectiveness went up, so did TFL scores.

VARIABLE	B	T	SIGN. T
Unit effectiveness	.27	6.58	.000

Finally, a scatter plot was completed for transformational leadership and unit effectiveness. An eye-ball fitting hand-drawn line was inserted, showing the estimated slope of the relationship between unit effectiveness and TFL. It revealed that as the transformational score increased, so did the score for unit effectiveness except at both extremes of unit effectiveness. The outlier scores seem to reflect that at the extreme low and high TFL continuum, subordinates rated their units as either highly effective or highly

ineffective regardless of their perceptions of how transformational the leader was (cf. Figure 39: Scatter Plot-Transformational Leadership by Unit Effectiveness).

FIGURE 39: SCATTER PLOT:
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY
UNIT EFFECTIVENESS



8.1.4 Satisfaction with the Leader

Does transformational or transactional leadership affect subordinate satisfaction with the leader?

<u>TESTS PERFORMED</u>	<u>RESULTS</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANT</u>
1. TWO WAY ANOVA	- Main effect for TAL & satisfaction with leader - Main effect for TFL & satisfaction with leader - Interaction	Yes Yes Yes
2. SCHEFFE	- TFL quad show higher satisfaction with leader than TAL quads	Yes

To test for differences between leadership styles and satisfaction with the leader, the independent nominal leadership variable which indicated high or low transactional leadership (Aquad) and transformational leadership (Fquad) was used. Subordinate satisfaction with the leader was the dependent variable. A two way anova resulted in significant differences.

As transactional leadership went from low to high scores relative to the sample, the dependent variable, satisfaction with the leader, went from an effectiveness score of 3.30 to 2.95, indicating a decline in rated effectiveness. While a relatively slight change, this major effect indicates a negative relationship which is highly significant. When the independent variable examined was transformational leadership, and the leadership score went from low to high, the dependent variable went from 2.50 to 3.75 indicating a substantial increase in the effectiveness rating. This major effect was significant at the .001 level (cf. Table 40: Two Way Anova - Satisfaction with Leader by Leadership Style).

In addition, an interaction was observed at a significance of $< .01$ ($F(1,339) = 6.97, p = .009$) (cf. Table 40: Satisfaction with Leader by Leadership Style).

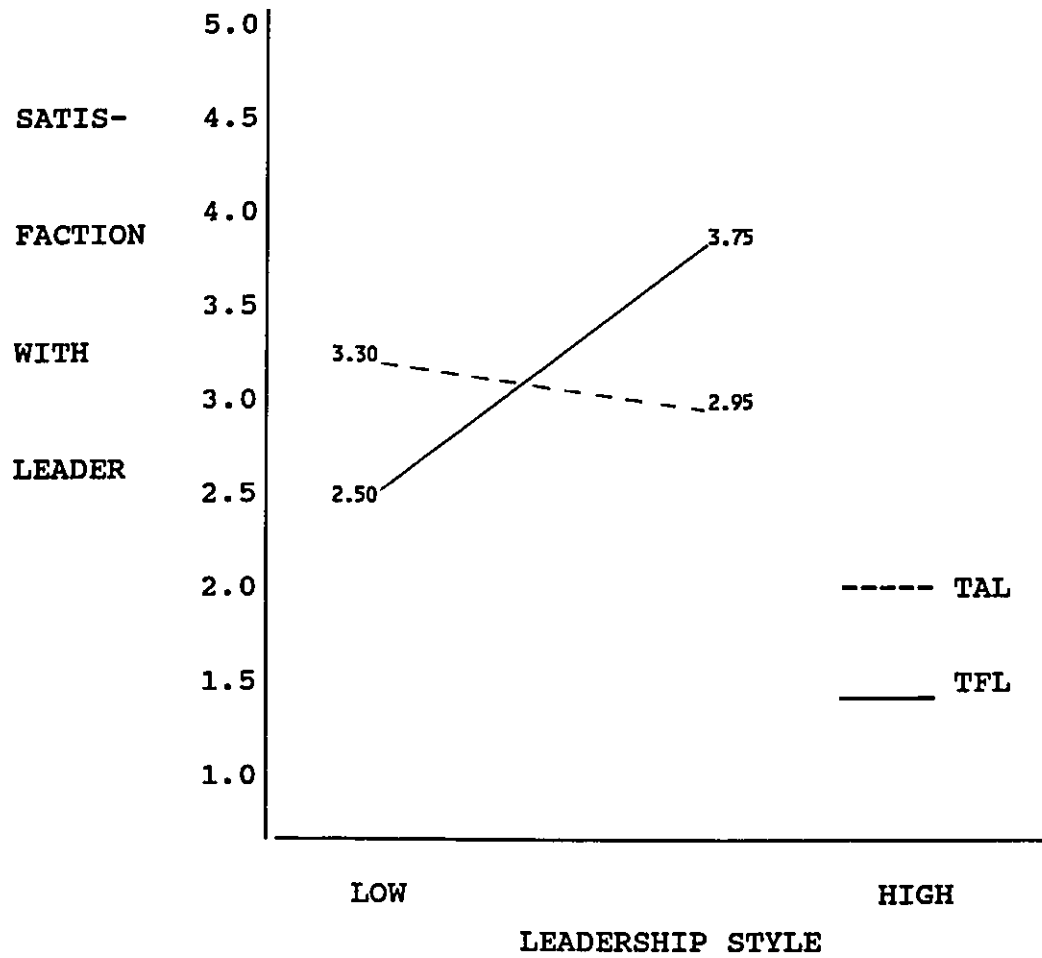
TABLE 40: TWO WAY ANOVA F VALUES**SATISFACTION WITH LEADER BY LEADERSHIP STYLE****TAL (AQUAD) BY TFL (FQUAD)**

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	SIGNIF. OF F
AQUAD	1,339	8.69	8.69	12.58	.000 ***
FQUAD	1,339	123.03	123.03	178.01	.000 ***
AQUAD BY FQUAD	1,339	4.82	4.82	6.97	.009 **

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01, *** SIGNIF. AT .001

The interaction indicates that, while satisfaction with the leader is higher with low transactional leadership than with low transformational leadership, as transformational leadership moves from low to high, subordinates' satisfaction with the leader goes up. Conversely, as leadership style moves from low to high transformational, satisfaction with the leader scores increase (cf. Table 41: Fquad (TFL) by Aquad (TAL) and Satisfaction with Leader Interaction).

**TABLE 41: TFL (FQUAD) BY TAL (AQUAD) AND
SATISFACTION WITH LEADER INTERACTION**



It is interesting to note that the correlation matrix showed a high positive correlation between transformational leadership and satisfaction with the leader ($r = .80$, significance at $< .001$). Transactional leadership had a slight but significant negative correlation with satisfaction with the leader ($r = -.33$, significance of $< .01$). This result is consistent with the findings of the two way anova (cf. Table 40).

When a Scheffe procedure was used to compare the leadership quads in pairs, the two high transformational groups, i.e. high TFL, low TAL (group 4) and high TFL, high TAL (group 3) were significantly different from the two low transactional leadership groups, i.e. low TFL, low TAL (group 1) and low TFL, high TAL (group 2). Group 1, i.e. low TAL, low TFL, with a mean score of 2.8 satisfaction with the leader, was significantly different from group 2, i.e. high TAL, low TFL, with a mean score of 2.2. The high transactional, low transformational leadership group scored the lowest of all four groups.

It is interesting to note that the group with the lowest satisfaction with the leader score (2.2) is the leadership group that has a dominant TAL style (cf. Table 42). It would appear subordinates perceive it

to be more desirable from a satisfaction with the leader point of view, for the leader to have no dominant style than to have a dominant TAL style.

TABLE 42: SATISFACTION WITH LEADERSHIP
MEAN SCORES X QUADS

	GROUP & MEAN SCORES			
	1	2	3	4
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP	LO	HI	HI	LO
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP	LO	LO	HI	HI
SCHEFFE GROUPS	2.8	2.2	3.7	3.8
4	*	*		
3	*	*		
2	*			
1				

* DENOTES PAIRS OF GROUPS DIFFERENT AT THE .05 LEVEL

8.1.5 Characteristics of the Subordinate

Is transformational and transactional leadership related to the attributes of the follower, e.g. age of subordinate, longevity of employee with the agency, education of subordinate, subordinate status, sex of employee?

<u>TESTS PERFORMED</u>	<u>RESULTS</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANT</u>
1. PEARSON CORREL.	- Slight relationship between age and TFL	Yes
2. ONE WAY ANOVA	- Females had a slightly higher TFL mean score than males.	Yes

In order to investigate whether transformational or transactional leadership style was related to attributes of the follower, a correlation matrix was completed. The matrix showed that no correlations existed except between employee age and the independent variable, transformational leadership style. The correlation was a slight positive linear relationship with a two tailed significance of .01. It appears that while in certain

work settings, employee characteristics are related to their perceptions, in this sample the characteristics of subordinates are not related to their perceptions of leadership style. The only exception is the slight correlation between employee age and perception of leadership style, i.e. as subordinate age goes up so does the subordinate's perception of the transformational leadership style (cf. Table 43: Leadership Style and Employee Characteristics). It must, of course, be noted that this correlation does not necessarily imply a causal link.

TABLE 43: LEADERSHIP STYLE AND EMPLOYEE CHARACTERISTICS

VARIABLE	LONGEVITY	AGE	EDUCATION
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP	.07	.15 *	- .03
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP	- .13	-.10	- .09

SIGNIFICANCE = * .01, ** .001

An analysis of variance was completed for subordinate status (i.e. whether a subordinate was a supervisor or non-supervisory) and sex (i.e. male or female) with the TFL and TAL variable. No differences were found between supervisors and line staff on the leadership scores. However, there was a very slight difference in the scores that could be accounted for on the basis of sex. Female respondents rated their leaders slightly higher in TFL scores than males. Likewise, males rated their leaders slightly higher in transactional scores than females. While these differences were highly significant they were not large and did not appear to have practical importance (cf. Table 44: Anova F Value - Leadership and Employee Sex).

TABLE 44: ANOVA F VALUE

LEADERSHIP AND EMPLOYEE SEX

SOURCE	DF	MEANS		SS	MS	F	SIGN. OF F
		MALE	FEM				
TRANSFOR- MATIONAL	1,370	2.8	3.0	3.09	3.09	6.10	.01 **
TRANSAC- TIONAL	1,354	1.3	1.2	1.59	1.59	6.95	.008***

* SIGNIF. AT .05, ** SIGNIF. AT .01, ***SIGNIF. AT .001

STANDARD DEV.	MALE	FEMALE
TRANSFORMATIONAL	.75	.69
TRANSACTIONAL	.48	.48

8.2 ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

An area of interest is the relationship between leadership style and organizational characteristics. Leadership style was quantified using the same variables as in the previous section with the only difference being that the scores were averaged across each agency, resulting in an agency transformational or transactional score. Similarly, the quads were developed using the agency unit of measure.

8.2.1. Employees, Sites, Budget, Unions

Is transformational or transactional leadership related to certain agency characteristics, e.g. number of employees, number of sites, budget size, unionization, professionalization, organization type?

<u>TESTS PERFORMED</u>	<u>RESULTS</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANT</u>
PEARSON CORREL.	No relationships of interest.	No

A pearson correlation matrix was developed showing relationships amongst the key interval organizational variables discussed in the methodology chapter. It should be noted that the independent variables in this section of the analysis are the agency characteristics with the dependent variable being leadership style. The research is examining whether these agency characteristics are related or cause greater or lesser amounts of TFL or TAL.

While the results yielded significant correlations among certain variables, there were no significant correlations between the independent transformational and transactional leadership variables and other organizational variables of interest. A number of the key variables are reported in Table 45: Correlation Matrix of Organizational Characteristics and Leadership Style.

**TABLE 45: CORRELATION MATRIX OF ORGANIZATIONAL
CHARACTERISTICS AND LEADERSHIP STYLE**

CORRELA- TIONS	UNION	BUDGET INC.	FUND RAISE	TURN- OVER 1	SITES	FTE	ABSEN- TEEISM 1
UNIONIZ	1.000	- .296	- .222	.019	.051	.265	.277*
BUDGET	.207	.020	- .049	.186	.369**	.562**	.164
BUDGINCR	- .297	1.000	.290	- .038	.066	- .001	.014
FNDRAISE	.222	.290	1.000	- .011	- .216	- .253	- .164
TURNVR 1	.019	- .038	- .011	1.000	.319*	.188	- .063
FTE	.265	- .001	- .253	.188	.468**	1.000	.223
SITES	.052	- .066	- .216	.319*	1.000	.468**	.214
ABSENTEE- ISM 1							1.000
TRANSACT	.029	.009	- .033	.115	.040	- .09	- .053
TRANSFORM	- .140	.176	.130	- .104	.069	.24	.106

MINIMUM PAIRWISE N OF CASES = 35; SIGNIF: * < .01

** < .001

8.2.2 Turnover, Absenteeism, Budget Increases, and
Fundraising

What is the effect of transformational and transactional leadership style on agency turnover 1, agency absenteeism 1, agency budget growth and charitable fundraising?

<u>TESTS PERFORMED</u>	<u>RESULTS</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANT</u>
ANOVAS	None	No
CORRELATIONS	None of Interest	

A number of tests were completed including anovas, correlations, and regression models. None yielded any results of significance that were of interest. Leadership was the independent variable with absenteeism, turnover, budget increase and fundraising being the dependent variable. The number of agencies analyzed for budget growth between 1985 and 1991, was 77. For fundraising, 39 agencies were in the sample. Agencies that fundraised were compared to the agencies that did not and again there were no differences in the leadership styles exhibited (cf. Table 46: Anova F Value - Leadership Style-Quads, Budget Increases and Fundraising).

TABLE 46: ANOVA F VALUE

**LEADERSHIP STYLE - QUADS, BUDGET INCREASES
AND FUNDRAISING**

SOURCE	DF	SS	MS	F	SIGNIF. OF F
BUDGET INCREASE	3,74	16071.10	5357.03	.31	.82
FUNDRAISING	3,36	12.98	4.33	.63	.60

Organizational turnover (turnover 1) and organizational absenteeism (absenteeism 1) were explored by means of the correlation matrix and no relationships of interest to the dissertation were found (cf. Table 45).

8.3 LEADER CHARACTERISTICS

Two questions related to leadership style and leader characteristics. The independent variables in this section are leadership characteristics which may result in higher or lower TAL or TFL style.

8.3.1 Leader Age, Longevity, Education

Do certain attributes of the leader, (e.g. leader age and education, longevity as Executive Director, experience, leader salary), correlate with transformational and transactional leadership?

<u>TESTS PERFORMED</u>	<u>RESULTS</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANT</u>
PEARSON CORREL.	- Low relationship between salary and TFL	Yes

Pearson correlations were completed for transformational and transactional leadership with the following results identified in Table 47: Leadership Style and Leader Characteristics Correlation.

**TABLE 47: LEADERSHIP STYLE AND LEADER CHARACTERISTICS
CORRELATION**

VARIABLES	AGE	LONGEVITY	EXPERIENCE	SALARY
TRANSACTIONAL	-.02	.08	.10	- .14
TRANSFORMATIONAL	.17	-.07	-.10	.29*

NO. OF CASES = 92

SIGNIFICANCE: * = .05, ** = .01

The only correlation was a positive, low correlation at a level of significance of .05 between salary and transformational leadership, i.e. as transformational leadership scores increased so did salary. For the rest of the leader characteristics, however, the null hypothesis was validated. It would appear that leader characteristics do not play a large part in determining leadership style.

CHAPTER IX

9.0 CONCLUSION

9.1 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The research in this dissertation involved an investigation of Executive Directors and their immediate subordinates within PSSOs, specifically child welfare organizations in Ontario. The focus of the study was to examine leadership styles, particularly TFL and TAL, and certain intervening and output variables. The intervening variables consisted of organizational, subordinate and leader characteristics. The output variables examined, which related to the agency as a whole, included agency turnover 1 and absenteeism 1 rates, percentage of the budget fundraised, and budget growth. Output variables related to subordinates included job satisfaction, commitment, work week, leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, subordinate turnover 2, and absenteeism 2. Based on the data analysis previously described the major findings of the dissertation will be discussed.

9.1.1 The Existence of TFL and TAL in PSSOs

It was anticipated that transformational leadership would be found among the Executive Directors in the study. The work in PSSOs is readily defined in terms of values (Bass, 1985), and lends itself to being talked about as requiring a sense of mission (House, 1977).

Furthermore, when the five elements essential in the transformational process as defined by Roberts (1985) are examined, i.e. a crisis, a mission, a vision, an ad hoc structure and a participative process, finding transformational leadership is to be expected. With the current economic environment and the financial difficulties facing services funded by government, the sector faces a great deal of stress, if not a crisis. Workers and leaders alike perceive themselves as having a strong commitment and vision for helping people. Given the interdisciplinary nature of the technology and the need for constant collaboration between professionals, it is natural for a participative process to exist in a majority of organizations, not only between professionals but also involving management.

One surprising finding in the study, however, is the degree to which TFL was perceived to exist in the sample. With a mean score for the sample of 2.93 on a range of zero to 4.0, 50% of all Executive Directors were clustered in the top 20% of the scale. A number of studies have reported mean transformational scale scores between 1.98 and 2.19 (Avolio et al., 1988). One study conducted in an Air Force Academy reported an average slightly higher than the current study (Clover, 1990), but that appears to be exceptional.

The high mean for TFL in the current study may be partially due to the unique context of PSSOs and the fact that they exhibit most of the elements of a transformational process as defined by Roberts (1985). Another key reason for the high TFL scores may be the level of subordinate in the organization that is being examined. The literature indicates that while TFL can be seen at all levels of the organization, the higher up in the organizational hierarchy one goes the more prevalent it is (Bass, 1985; Tichy and Ulrich, 1984; Tichy and Devanna, 1986). It is unclear whether leaders exhibit this style because they know it is effective or because the context, characteristics, and needs of the subordinates elicit it. While it is possible to

hypothesize, the issue of causality will be the unanswered issue not only here but also throughout our discussion.

Another possible explanation relates to a stated limitation which was identified in Section 6.3.2 with regard to the Clover technique of scoring eight factors into two scores. While Bass found that certain factors account for more of the variance of significance, in this study they are scored equally; thus the factors which accounted for less of the variance are over-emphasized in the final score. This would mean that the high transformational score is not truly measuring a transformational leader as represented by a strong component of charisma and inspiration, but rather someone who happens to be highly considerate of subordinates and stimulates them intellectually.

It may be, however, that contrary to Bass' finding that intellectual stimulation and individual consideration do not account for much of the variance of significance, within PSSOs these two factors are very important and account for as much as the variance as charisma and inspiration. When one considers the emphasis placed on the importance of caring in PSSOs and the high level of education achieved in the sector,

there is preliminary evidence to support this assumption. Further analysis must be completed in order to test this hypothesis.

Very low levels emerged in the existence of TAL. The mean in the study for TAL was 1.21, and the means reported for other studies range from 1.56 to 2.03 (Avolio et al., 1988). While the literature would suggest that both types of leadership exist in an effective leader and that the factors act independently (Bass, 1985), the Executive Directors in this study exhibited very low levels of TAL. This finding may indicate that, in fact, the two types of leadership tend to be bipolar or mutually exclusive, i.e. if a leader is strongly transformational, he/she will exhibit low levels of TAL because TFL and TAL are at opposite ends of the same continuum. Another explanation may be that this is a finding unique to PSSOs because of the workers and the context, and does not preclude the possibility that in another context one would expect to have respondents report similarly high levels of TFL and TAL in the same leader.

9.1.2 Neutralizers of Leadership

One would expect that given the literature on neutralizers of leadership which include education, technology, unions, and group cohesion (Kerr, 1978, p. 395; Sheridan, Vredenburg and Abelson, 1984; Pfeffer, 1977), Executive Directors of PSSOs would have a difficult time being leaders and exerting leadership influence utilizing the traditional managerial style. Subordinates in PSSOs have a high level of understanding of the task because of professional training, know the organizational expectations since these are articulated in union contracts, and are accustomed to conducting themselves in an autonomous manner without direct supervision because of their status in the organization and/or their professional identities. One could argue the factors identified above make the use of transactional leadership unnecessary or even totally ineffective.

The low TAL, which is seen to be more of the traditional leadership style, may partially be evidence of this argument. Leaders do not stay in the job for very long in this context if they exhibit high levels of TAL style because workers do not respond to TAL in a positive manner.

Similarly, it could be argued that TFL is not likely to have much of an impact in the PSSO context and therefore might not exist at strong levels. The existence of unions, high educational levels among the subordinates, and strong professional identities would result in leaders having minimal impact or influence. Contrary to expectations however, there were relatively high levels of TFL reported, indicating a perception on the part of subordinates that the Executive Directors were visionary, inspirational, intellectually stimulating and considerate of subordinates. It is also clear from the data that TFL was considered to contribute positively to a number of dependent variables, e.g. job satisfaction, commitment, perception of leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader.

It may be that TFL is elicited by subordinates since it is influence which is based on personal not position power. It is a type of influence that leaves it up to the subordinate to determine whether the influence of the leader is accepted. From the standpoint of the knowledgeable and motivated subordinate, TFL is a much more affirming, stimulating, and supportive type of leadership and would be more likely accepted by a subordinate.

There may also be a strong tendency to select leaders with participative skills and/or TFL in the PSS sector. This certainly would not be difficult to do since many within the sector have the attributes necessary to be participative or exhibit TFL. Training of workers in the sector stresses process over product, collaboration over unilateral decision, and knowledge as being more powerful than hierarchies. Experience teaches that there is no one right answer, and that relationship building is critical in the helping process. When a staff person is promoted up the supervisory hierarchy, many of these skills can be applied in managerial positions.

A final reason for the high levels of TFL and low levels of TAL is that the sample of subordinates in the study are drawn primarily from management. Management staff tend to be self-motivated, and knowledgeable about their tasks, minimizing the need for more directive or TAL methods. In any case, within the sample of subordinates identified in the study, TFL is the central way in which leadership influence is exercised.

9.1.3 Leadership Style, and Perceptions of Subordinates

The statistics confirmed the positive relationship between subordinate perceptions such as worker commitment, job satisfaction, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader, and TFL. The negative relationship between these factors and TAL, while there, was less robust.

Worker commitment to the agency increased from 4.2 to 4.7 as TFL went from low to high using an anova. This represents a 12% increase within the scale and appears to have practical importance, especially since the mean score for commitment on a five-point scale was 4.4, indicating a high commitment level for the average subordinate.

The high level of commitment, as reflected in the mean scores, may be due to the status of the subordinates, i.e. the higher subordinates are in the organizational hierarchy, the more likely the subordinate will feel he or she has an impact on the organization. This perceived ability to have an impact builds ownership for decisions and ownership can increase commitment. It is interesting to note, however, that there was no difference between those

subordinates having supervisory status and those of non-supervisory status. This would lead one to discount the explanation that status explains the high level of commitment. An alternative explanation is that the high level of TFL is directly related to increased commitment.

The data indicates that, as TFL increased, agency commitment increased, leading one to hypothesize that TFL does result in higher levels of commitment. Similarly, job satisfaction increased by .6 or 13% as TFL moved from low to high. The regression model further confirmed that higher commitment and job satisfaction predicts the level of TFL and that these may be caused by TFL. The regression model with these variables accounts for about one-fifth of the variance of significance.

TAL had a slightly negative effect on commitment and job satisfaction on both the anova and the regression model. While the effect was statistically significant, it appears to have little practical significance. It may be that commitment and job satisfaction are enhanced by TFL but do not decrease much through TAL. More likely, the lack of practical differences in TAL may again be due to the

characteristics of the sample and the low TAL scores which do not provide enough room to test the impact of fluctuations in scores. In any case, the relationships do show that commitment and job satisfaction increase with higher levels of TFL, and decrease with higher levels of TAL. The findings on TFL and TAL support other studies which showed similar results (Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Delouga and Souza, 1991).

There was no difference between work week and leadership style, nor was work week a significant predictor in the model. A majority of subordinates reported working in excess of the regular work week which was defined as 40 hours per week. The lack of findings could be due to any number of factors including that the subordinates are primarily management-related and have a high level of ownership for their activities; everyone over-estimates how much they work regardless of their positions, or subordinates must work extra hours in an era of tight resources and rising needs, regardless of leadership style.

The evidence supports the conclusion that perceptions of leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader show a strong positive relationship to TFL. With leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the

leader, the mean scores increased by 36% and 52% respectively, as TFL went from low to high. Given the relatively strong significant relationship between the dependent and independent variables, this is indeed encouraging evidence of the relevance of TFL in the PSS sector. While not as robust a relationship, TAL was negatively related to both dependent variables. An interaction between the two leadership styles and the dependent variables (i.e. satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness), indicated that an inverse relationship existed between the two sets of variables. In each case, as TFL went from low to high, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader scores increased. At the same time, TAL went from high to low with a corresponding result that leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader scores decreased.

As evidenced by the Scheffe test, when the leadership quadrants are compared on the leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader variables, the two high TFL leadership quadrants are different from the two low TFL quadrants. This finding was to be expected, indicating TFL shows a positive relationship to the dependent variables and TAL a negative one. When the means are compared on the dependent variables the high

TFL, low TAL quadrant exceeds the mean of the high TFL, high TAL quadrant. While not significant, this finding may point to the need to explore whether increased TAL tends to neutralize some of the impact of TFL.

What is a further surprising finding, is that the low TAL, low TFL quadrant was significantly different from the low TFL, high TAL quadrant, with the latter having the lowest means for the dependent variables of satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness. One explanation would be that TAL is such a negative factor for these dependent variables, that its absence, even if it leaves a vacuum, results in higher means in the dependent variables than if it existed. Certainly in this study with this population on these variables TAL is seen in a negative light. A number of studies relating leader and organizational effectiveness would support these findings with these variables (Waldman, Bass and Einstein, 1987; Hater and Bass, 1988).

It should be noted that while some of the relationships may not appear to be practically significant, the findings are worth examining since the mean scores for the subordinate perceptions are within approximately one point of the top of the scale on a five or six point scale, (e.g. job satisfaction, commitment, satisfaction

with the leader and leader effectiveness). This leaves little room to move up. Similarly, the distribution for leadership scores are skewed to the left or the right, leaving little ability to vary in certain directions. If the distributions were normal it is likely the practical significance of the differences would increase.

9.1.4 Leadership Style and Non-Subordinate Perception Variables

A number of other variables were explored, most of which showed no relationship to the independent variables in this study.

Subordinate absenteeism (absenteeism 2) and turnover (turnover 2) rates were examined by completing an analysis of variance which showed no significant differences. In order to determine whether the tenure of the leader or subordinate had an impact on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, an analysis was done on those subordinates and leaders with four years or more experience with the organization. The results were non-significant. Organizational turnover (turnover 1)

and organizational absenteeism (absenteeism 1) were examined, but again no significant relationships were found.

This lack of a relationship could be due to a number of other factors impacting on these variables (i.e. turnover, absenteeism, longevity, experience, etc.), which neutralize the effect of leadership. Turnover rates can be affected by administrative restructuring, termination, returning to school, promotion opportunities elsewhere, spouse getting a transfer, life-style changes, etc. Similarly, absenteeism can be affected by unavoidable illness of the subordinate or members of the family, job work load, level of subordinate conscientiousness and responsibility, emotional burnout, leadership style, etc. It should also be noted that the reported levels of absenteeism 2 in the sample were quite low, indicating a highly motivated group of subordinates with an excellent attendance record.

As indicated in the analysis section, there were no significant relationships found between leadership style and the attributes of the subordinates, e.g. longevity, education, status, etc., with the exception of age and sex. Older subordinates perceived a slightly higher

level of TFL in their leaders, and female subordinates perceived a slightly higher level of TFL than males (2.8 and 3.0). Again, female subordinates reported a slightly lower level of TAL than males (1.2 and 1.3) in their superior. These differences, while significant statistically, do not appear to have practical relevance. This would lead to the conclusion that either the sample size was not large enough to be able to distinguish between these variables or the attributes of the subordinates are not an important factor in determining the perception to TFL or TAL in the leader.

Agency characteristics such as the number of sites, budget size, unionization, professionalization and organization type do not relate to leadership style in this study. On the surface, this seems surprising since size, unionization and degree of professionalization appear to be neutralizers of traditional leadership. One would expect that TFL would be positively related to these characteristics.

In fact, this may be the case. If one looks at the context of PSSOs it can be argued that because of the level of professionalism, external conditions including the strength of organized labour, type of work etc., leaders exhibit a high level of TFL and a low level of

TAL. Given the existing levels of these leadership styles found in the sector, it would be difficult to practically exceed the level of TFL and decrease the level of TAL due to organizational characteristics in this sector.

Budget increases over the last seven years and fundraising did not yield any significant differences. It would appear that budget increases involve a myriad of factors that neutralize the impact of leadership. Some of these factors include government policy, economic conditions, local needs, political influences, relationships with bureaucrats, and the aggressiveness and skills of Boards of Directors in negotiating with funders. The area of fundraising is also affected by many factors outside of leadership style, including a supportive constituency, the needs of the organization, the skills of the Board and/or leader, the economic environment, etc. In any case, with about a third of the agencies reporting fundraising activities, the sample was probably not large enough to reflect statistically significant differences even under the best of circumstances.

The last area of investigation concerns leadership style and leader characteristics. While a number of variables were looked at, none showed significant relationships except for a positive relationship between transformational leadership and salary (pearson $r = .29$). The most obvious explanation would be that TFL leaders have subordinates that are highly satisfied, committed, and judge their leader to be effective. This, over time, would be communicated to the Board of Directors and the Executive Director would be rewarded accordingly. Further investigation, however, would need to be conducted to establish the reason for the relationship.

9.2 IMPLICATIONS

- 1. There is a high level of TFL and low level of TAL among Executive Directors in PSSOs.**

The study found that TFL exists and can be identified in the PSS sector. In addition, there were very high levels of TFL perceived among the Executive Directors in the sample, that cannot be explained solely by the managerial positions occupied by the majority of the subordinate respondents. The argument would be that the subordinates perceive high levels of TFL in their leader because they are primarily supervisors, acting in a very autonomous and self-regulating manner which allows the leader to exhibit TFL. This argument does not hold up when one considers that 19% of the subordinate respondents are non-supervisory and that there is no difference in how the supervisory and non-supervisory subordinates perceive TFL in the Executive Director. It would appear that, quite naturally, the context of PSSOs has attracted leaders with TFL to the sector.

As well, the sector has leaders with very low levels of TAL. The levels appear so low that it is difficult to measure negative relationships between TAL

and other key variables. Consideration also needs to be given to whether TAL, as it now is measured in Bass' questionnaire, is an adequate measure of the concept within the PSS sector. The measurement of the concept could be expanded to reflect a fuller range of leadership interventions in the area of TAL.

2. TFL is related to positive outcomes in PSSOs and TAL appears related to negative outcomes.

TFL is positively related to a number of subordinate perceptions that are accepted as desirable in an organization. This supports the findings of other recent studies that have investigated TFL and TAL (Clover, 1990; Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Delouga and Souza, 1991). As a result, this dissertation enhances the credibility of the reported benefits of TFL and verifies its application to the PSS sector.

While not as robust, TAL is negatively related to a more limited number of subordinate perceptions. Most studies indicate that transactional leadership and transformational leadership are both related to employee satisfaction and effectiveness indicators, but that TFL is a more effective style to bring about positive

perceptions (Waldman, Bass, Einstein, 1987). Hater & Bass (1988) found TAL related negatively to leader effectiveness. This dissertation appears to run counter to the majority conclusion, since TAL is negatively related to subordinate perceptions (e.g. leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, etc.).

One conclusion that can be drawn from this finding is that Executive Directors should consider using TFL behaviour with their subordinates since it is related to positive outcomes. Glisson (1989), has stated that effective leadership in PSSOs consists of leaders motivating and inspiring employees so that they have a clear notion of mission and appropriate values guiding their work. TFL seems to be related to these directions. Not only should Executive Directors explore these methods, but agencies, in their recruiting process, would be wise to hire managers that show a tendency toward these practices. Training programmes for managers could also incorporate the findings of this study and provide training in TFL.

As indicated previously, the issue of causality cannot be determined from the field survey, other than to confirm the conclusion of other research that

leadership style may, in fact, cause the relationship (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Hater and Bass, 1988). Further studies should investigate this direction.

3. The PSS sector can be shown to exhibit the contextual attributes necessary to elicit TFL.

Much has been written about the conceptual framework which attempts to explain the contextual factors necessary for the development of charisma or TFL (House, 1977; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Bass, 1985; Roberts, 1985; Roberts and Bradley, 1988). The current study identifies an entire sector that seems to meet the contextual requirements of what is needed to exhibit TFL, and then finds a high level of TFL exists among the Executive Directors in the study. The study, therefore, provides support for the modelling that has been done.

An area that still requires further investigation is the role of a crisis in the development of TFL. While Roberts and Bradley (1988) and Roberts (1985) state that a crisis is required, others do not feel it is (House, 1977; Bass, 1985). In the PSS sector being studied, a case can be made that a crisis exists, however even without a crisis, this sector would

exhibit other criteria discussed earlier and identified by House (1977), and Roberts and Bradley (1988) which would result in high levels of TFL.

4. It is unclear whether the concepts of TFL and TAL are independent or bipolar.

Some researchers have looked at TAL and TFL as bipolar (Burns, 1978), while others see the two styles as acting independently (Bass, 1985). Avolio and Bass (1988) state that for optimum effectiveness, leaders should be both transactional and transformational. This conclusion is not supported by this dissertation. In fact, to the contrary, while TFL was positively related to leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader, TAL was negatively related to these dependent variables.

One reason for this finding in the PSS study may be the level of subordinate that participated in the study did not require TAL techniques to be motivated or carry out the tasks required, e.g. contingent reward, management by exception-active. If, on the other hand, the majority of subordinates had been front line workers, greater levels of TAL would have surfaced and been positively related to effectiveness. The reasoning

would be that line staff are not as involved in decision making and do not have quite the same ownership, knowledge of the task, motivation and commitment to the organization's work. Consequently, front line workers need leadership techniques which monitor their performance closely and provide them with external incentives to perform. While having some merit, this reasoning becomes weaker when one considers that 19% of the sample of subordinates in the study were non-management personnel and, when compared to the management staff, showed no significant differences in perceptions regarding leadership style.

A more likely explanation is that while the concept of TAL is sound and can be seen as contributing to leadership effectiveness (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985), the method of measuring the concept in the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass (1985) is inadequate. Some of the factors identified as TAL in the MLQ are perceived as positive in certain situations, e.g. contingent reward (Hunt and Schuler, 1976; Komaki, 1986; Podsakoff, Todor and Skov, 1982), while others are undesirable ways of leading. This can be recognized intuitively when one reads some of the questions related to the management by exception and laissez-faire factors, e.g. "If I don't bother him/her, he/she doesn't

bother me." "As long as work meets minimal standards, he/she avoids trying to make improvements." "Avoids getting involved when important issues arise." "Avoids making decisions." "Keeps careful track of mistakes." While the same criticism cannot be made of contingency reward and some management by exception-active questions, e.g. "Tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts." "Is alert for failure to meet standards.", it does appear clear that TAL has negative implications. This dissertation would suggest TAL and TFL as currently measured are bipolar styles, not independent as is suggested by Bass, (1985).

Further studies should be completed to determine whether the leadership styles identified tend to be mutually exclusive, i.e. bipolar, only in the context of subordinates reporting directly to the Executive Directors, or whether they are bipolar at a front line level as well.

9.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are a number of design limitations in this research that must be recognized as conclusions are made.

- 1. The research design does not include all intervening variables.**

There are other intervening variables beyond the ones identified that impact on the outputs identified in the dissertation. The demands of the clients, the demands of the funders, government regulations, unidentified employee characteristics, etc., can all have an effect on the identified outputs. Even when statistically significant findings are identified, other unknown factors may be linked to the identified factors.

While a major concern, this limitation is inherent in developing and testing models and must be tolerated. In order to address this concern a literature review has been conducted and the important intervening variables have been included. Nevertheless, care must be

exercised to ensure that relationships are not overstated. Future research will need to incorporate other variables enlarging the overall model.

2. The research does not demonstrate causality.

Again, this is a limitation which is inherent in all field survey research. It is related to the previous limitation since a statistically significant relationship between two variables does not imply a cause/effect relationship. It may be that the cause of the effect in both variables results from a third unidentified variable, e.g. there is a significant relationship between height and weight, but the cause of both is known to be hereditary and environmental factors. When exploring relationships between variables and discussing causality, alternative explanations must be considered.

Limiting the sample to a specific population of agencies, i.e. child welfare agencies, funded primarily by the Ministry of Community and Social Services in Ontario, eliminates finding differences due to discrepancies in funding levels or mechanisms, policy differences, varying priorities between funders,

different licensing requirements, environmental factors, etc., and therefore reduces the number of alternative explanations.

Furthermore, the nature of the study is exploratory, investigating relationships rather than attempting to prove causality. Care has been taken to not overstate the relationships, although causality has been stated as one logical explanation if the relationship is significant and other studies have found cause and effect relationships.

3. The organizations and the subordinates participating in the survey were self-selected.

This is a concern that exists in most survey research. In the study of PSSOs, the response rate was high, with 65.7% of the organizations agreeing to participate. Out of a total of 472 questionnaires that were requested, 377 were received. This would indicate that the sample is representative of the overall population since over 50% of the population participated. All organizations not participating were contacted by phone, and on the basis of their responses, there is no reason to believe the non-participants would have changed the

results. Reasons for not participating included busy work schedule, resignation or termination of Executive Director, and major staff changes.

4. The questionnaires were distributed to the subordinates through the Executive Directors, and participation may have appeared mandatory for subordinates.

This presented an ethical dilemma as well as the practical problem of participant resistance. The ethical dilemma of whether subordinates participated on a voluntary basis or were coerced was handled by providing confidential return envelopes to each subordinate. As well, each individual respondent was asked to return a signed consent form, and the return rate was 93%. An additional confirmation illustrating that subordinates were not coerced to participate, was the response received from a majority of the Executive Directors that they would have to discuss participation in the study with their senior management team. In the final analysis it appears the subordinates had a number of ways of not participating in the research if that was their wish, and were not coerced into participating.

5. There was a data bias because much of the information for the independent and dependent variables came from the subordinates.

While there is a basis to the concern, indications are that subordinates do evaluate the same leader in a consistent manner. The mean scores for TAL and TFL for the sample had a standard deviation of .48 and .72 respectively, indicating limited variability between subordinates. In a review of mean scores of leadership style perceptions and corresponding standard deviations for all subordinates within a particular agency, an agency with eight subordinates responding had a standard deviation of .272 for TFL. Many similar examples could be cited to illustrate the lack of variability between respondents within the same agency.

A correlation matrix and an analysis of variance was conducted on some of the key variables (e.g. TFL, TAL, job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader, and leader effectiveness) with the unit of analysis being the agency. The results are similar to those reported for the individual subordinates' analysis (cf. Table 48 and Table 24). This further limits the concern.

**TABLE 48: CORRELATIONS FOR THE SUBORDINATE RESPONSES
BY AGENCY**

	JOB SATIS- FACTION	LEADER SATIS- FACTION	LEADER EFFEC- TIVENESS	TRANSAC- TIONAL	TRANSFOR- MATIONAL
JOB SATIS- FACTION	1.000	.275*	.296*	- .122	.345**
LEADER SATIS- FACTION	.275*	1.000	.855**	- .362**	.871**
LEADER EFFECTIVE- NESS	.296*	.855**	1.000	- .387**	.858**
TRANSAC- TIONAL	- .122	- .362**	- .387**	1.000	- .354**
TRANSFOR- MATIONAL	.345**	.871**	.858**	- .354**	1.000

N = 92 agencies; * .01 level of sign.; ** .001 level of sign.

Finally, other studies confirm that subordinates do evaluate the leadership style of their supervisors in a manner that is similar to independent sources. Hater (1986) reported that managers who were independently judged by their supervisors as having high potential based on previous job performance, were seen by subordinates as being more transformational than another random sample group of managers from the same organization. Also, studies examining TFL and TAL, that were free of the same source biases, had results similar to those in this research (Smith, 1982; Howell, 1986; Howell and Frost, 1989).

6. Two distinct types of organizations are combined into one sample and conclusions are drawn.

While there are a number of similarities between the two types of organizations, it must also be recognized that there are a number of differences between the organizations which could have an impact on the results. These include the CASSs having a legislated mandate (e.g. to protect children from harm) and CMHCs having primarily a voluntary focus; CASSs emphasizing the child welfare component as the desired outcome and CMHCs emphasizing a highly professional treatment focus; CASSs having a voluntary Board structure that involves political appointees and CMHCs having a Board that is usually community-oriented but self perpetuating. By integrating these two types of organizations into one sample, the study is assuming that the differences in these areas will not impact on the results.

While it is not in the scope of the study to address this assumption, the researcher has a high level of confidence that this assumption is in fact true. Based on 18 years of working in the sector with both types of organizations, the writer believes the similarities result in similar leadership demands on the

Executive Director. It should also be noted that a group of 15 agencies made up of hospitals, nursing homes, and community health clinics were involved in a sub-sample analysis and compared to the main study. The results showed no significant differences between the main sample of CASS and CMHCs, and the subsample. This tends to increase the confidence that the findings of this study may be applicable to a larger population of agencies.

7. The leadership score (Clover Method) treats each factor with equal weight, giving certain factors more influence and others less, from what was intended by Bass.

The eight factors which make up transformational and transactional leadership are given different weights by Bass (1985) and account for different amounts of the variance of significance. In the case of TFL style, charisma and inspiration make up 65% of the variance of significance, with intellectual stimulation and individual consideration accounting for only 9%. The usual method of analyzing TFL and TAL style is to take each factor and relate it to the dependent variables. This method was rejected in this case because the researcher wanted a measure that reflected the overall

degree to which a leader was perceived to be transformational or transactional. Secondly, it was recognized that the same leader exhibited varying degrees of TFL and TAL style, and the researcher was interested in comparing groups of leaders exhibiting different combinations of TAL and TFL style.

The method of simply averaging the four factors for each style was chosen because it had been used by Clover (1990), establishing a precedent, and because the method provided a way of measuring TFL and TAL using only one score.

9.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

A number of future research directions come out of this dissertation. Some are methodological and others relate to specific questions.

The Nature of Transactional Leadership

It may be that certain factors of TAL are more positively perceived than others. Questions to be examined include: "Is there a positive aspect to TAL, e.g. contingent reward, and management by exception-active, and a negative aspect, e.g. management by exception-passive and laissez-faire?" "Under what circumstances is TAL effective?" "Are TAL and TFL independent or are they on a continuum?"

Leader Values and Transformational Leadership

It appears clear from Howell and Frost's (1989) laboratory study that TFL can be taught, and can elicit positive results. Intuitively, however, there seems to be a value set of TFL that is not easily taught but forms an integral part of who and what the individual leader is, and stands for. Values such as honesty, integrity, caring, dedication, are words that come to

mind in describing a transformational leader, but are not discussed in the conceptual framework. The question is whether these values, which would need to be defined and operationalized, are essential in order for TFL to be perceived to exist. Conversely, can TFL have a dark side? Can a leader be transformational if he/she exhibits all the techniques of TFL but is manipulative, deceitful, greedy, etc.? What are the inner values of a transformational leader? What motivates a transformational leader?

The situational and contextual determinants of TFL should also be explored. Is a crisis necessary for TFL? What specific characteristics are required in the subordinate at lower levels of the organization in order to make TFL appropriate or effective? Does a relationship with a transformational leader over time play a role in enhancing the performance of a subordinate?

The Relevance of TFL and TAL to Lower Levels of PSSOs

As has been indicated earlier, the subordinates in the study all reported to the Executive Director of the organization. It can be argued that, particularly in the case of supervisory staff who are highly involved in decision making and motivated to perform, a high level

of TFL will be exhibited. At a more front line level, however, it may be that workers need a great deal more monitoring of performance, direction, and immediate reinforcement for good performance. This may require more TAL from the supervisory system for those workers. Studies need to be designed to look at whether TAL and TFL exhibit the same relationships at lower levels of the organizations.

Studies need to address where TFL is not effective. Is the level of TFL and TAL in this dissertation reflective of the levels throughout the rest of the PSSOs? As departments are studied, important data can be obtained. Some departments, e.g. maintenance, administration, residential, or clinical, will have different levels of education, or unionization, than others. Does this change the importance of TFL or TAL in these situations? Answers to these questions would result in a more complete picture of how TFL and TAL apply to the PSS sector.

The Measures of TFL and its Effectiveness

A majority of studies are field surveys asking subordinates to report perceptions about the leader, his or her effectiveness, and the subordinate's own level of satisfaction and organizational commitment. It would be beneficial if future studies investigated what benefits accrued to the subordinates as a result of TFL. Do subordinate's values change over time? Do subordinates become more "empowered"? Does the way a subordinate of a transformational leader treats clients differ from the way a subordinate of a non-transformational leader treats clients? What is the impact of TFL in the organizational change process?

Methodological Directions

With the exception of some laboratory studies identified earlier, the issue of causation continues to limit the ability of researchers to draw conclusions. Greater effort needs to be put into methodologies that increase information about causality within field settings. Encouragement should be given for research projects that are longitudinal, involving a pre-test/post-test model with training being an intervening variable. Control groups could also be considered with

training in TFL being a key component for the experimental group. Finally, attention should be given to developing an instrument which assesses an individual's potential for a management position using TFL factors. In this way, researchers could determine whether TFL characteristics are a predictor of future managers and whether inferences can be made about possible success in leadership positions in the future.

9.5 FINAL COMMENT

The distinction between TFL and TAL is a rich and important concept for those who are interested in leadership and organizational behaviour. While much is being written about the concept and its applicability to a variety of settings, little has been done to show its relevance to PSSOs.

The PSS sector is involved in one of the most important activities which bears witness to the distinct quality of our humanity - the way we care for those in need.

It is hoped that this study will provide some encouragement to both practitioners and researchers interested in the human service sector to see the potential that the concept holds. Developing truly caring effective organizations requires leaders that are equipped to carry the burden of the responsibility, and lead with skill, vision, and integrity. May this dissertation stimulate that journey in some small way.

SOLA DEO GLORIA

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aldrich, H. E. (1979). Organizations and environments.

Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Allport, G. W. (1937). Personality: a psychological interpretation. New York: Holt, Rinehart.

Andrews, I. R., & Henry, M. M. (1963). Management attitudes toward pay. Industrial Relations, 3, 29-40.

Ashour, A. S. (1982). The framework for a cognitive behavioural theory of leader influence and effectiveness. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 30, 407-430.

Ashour, A. S. (1973). The contingency model of leadership effectiveness: an evaluation. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 9, 339-355.

Austin, D. M. (1985). Administrative practice in human services: future directions for curriculum development. In S. Slavin (Ed.), An introduction to human services management, Volume 1, of social administration: the management of social services. 2nd Edition. New York: The Haworth Press Inc.

- Austin, M. J. (1989). Managing up: relationship building between middle management and top management. Administration in Social Work, 12(4), 29-46.
- Austin, M. J. (1981). Supervisory management for the human services. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Austrom, D. R., Baldwin, T., & Macy, G. (1990). Wedded bliss for whom? An empirical exploration of the effects of marital status and gender on workplace performance and job satisfaction. Administration Science Association Conference Proceedings. Whistler, B.C.
ASAC 1990 Conference Paper.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1988). Transformational leadership, charisma and beyond. In J. G. Hunt, B. R. Baliga, H. P. Dachler, and C. A. Schriesheim (Eds.), Emerging leadership vistas (pp. 29-50).
Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1985). Charisma and beyond. Paper presented at the 8th biennial leadership symposium, Lubbock, Tex.

- Avolio, B. J., Waldman, D., & Einstein, W.O. (1988). Transformational leadership in a management game simulation. Group and Organization Studies, March, 13(1), 59-80.
- Bales, R. F. (1950). A set of categories for the analysis of small group interaction. American Sociological Review, 15, 257-263.
- Bargal, D., & Schmidt, H. (1989). Recent themes in theory and research on leadership and their implications for management of the human services. In D. Bargal (Ed.), Administrative leadership in the social services (pp. 37-54). New York: The Haworth Press Inc.
- Barton, R. F. (1981). An MCDM approach for resolving goal conflict in MBO. Academy of Management Review, 6, 231-241.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations. London: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1981). Stogdill's handbook of leadership. New York: The Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). Multi-factor leadership questionnaire - Form 8 Y. Unpublished questionnaire.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1989). Potential biases in leadership measures: how prototypes, leniency, and general satisfaction relate to ratings and rankings of transformational and transactional leadership constructs. Educational and Psychological Measurements, 49, 509-527.

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., & Goodheim, L. (1987). Biography and the assessment of transformational leadership at the world-class level. Journal of Management, 13, 5-17.

Becker, S., & Neuhauser, D. (1975). The efficient organization. New York: Elsevier Press.

Behling, D., & Starke, F. A. (1973). The postulates of expectancy theory. Academy of Management Journal, 16, 373-388.

Bennis, W. (1959). Leadership theory and administrative behaviour: the problem of authority. Administrative Science Quarterly, 4, 259-301.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders: the strategies for taking charge. New York: Harper & Row.

- Berlew, D. E. (1974). Leadership and organizational excitement. In D. A. Kolb, I. M. Reuben, & J. M. McIntyre (Eds.), Organizational psychology, a book of readings. 2nd edition. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall
- Bernard, C. (1951). The functions of the executive. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Bird, C. (1940). Social psychology. New York: Appleton-Century.
- Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. F. (1964). The managerial grid. Houston: Gulf Publishing.
- Blau, P. M., & Gordon, G. (1966). An entrepreneurial theory of formal organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 11(3), 315-344.
- Blau, P. M., & Scott, R. W. (1962). Formal organizations. San Francisco: Chandler Press.
- Bowers, D. G., & Seashore, S. E. (1966). Predicting organizational effectiveness with a four factor theory of leadership. Administrative Science Quarterly, 11, 238-263.

- Bradley, R. T. (1987). Charisma and social structure: a study of love and power, wholeness and transformation. New York: Paragon House.
- Bray, D. W., Campbell, R. J., & Grant, D. L. (1974). Formative years in business: a long-term AT & T study of managerial lines. New York: Wiley.
- Bryan, J. M. (1990). Strategic planning for public and non-profit organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Burke, W. W. (1986). Leadership as empowering others. In Srivastva, S. (Ed.), Executive power. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). Leadership. New York: Harper & Row.
- Calder, B. J. (1977). An attribution theory of leadership. In B. M. Staw & G. R. Salancik (Eds.), New direction in organizational behaviour (pp. 179-204). Chicago: Sinclair.
- Cameron, K. S., & Whetten, D. A. (1983). Organizational effectiveness: one model or several. In K. S. Cameron & D. A. Whetten (Eds.), Organizational effectiveness: a comparison of multiple models. New York: Academic Press.

Cameron, K. S., & Whetton, D. A. (1983). Some conclusions about organizational effectiveness. In K. S. Cameron & D. A. Whetton (Eds.), Organizational effectiveness: a comparison of multiple models (pp. 261-277). New York: Academic Press.

Campbell, J. P. (1977). On the nature of organizational effectiveness. In Goodman and Pennings (Eds.), New perspectives on organizational effectiveness (pp. 13-55). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Campbell, J. P. (1977). The cutting edge of leadership: an overview. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), Leadership: the cutting edge (pp. 221-246). Carbondale, Ill.: Southern Illinois University Press.

Campion, M.A. (1991). Meaning and measurement of turnover; comparison of alternative measures and recommendations for research. Journal of Applied Psychology, 76(2), 199-212.

Carver, J. (1990). Boards that make a difference. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Carver, J. (1979). Mental health administration: a management perversion. Address to the Association of Mental Health Administrators, Annual Meeting, September 8, 1979.

- Cell, C. P. (1974). Charismatic heads of state: the social context. Behavioural Science Research, 4, 255-304.
- Chemers, M. M., & Skrzypek, G. J. (1972). Experimental test of the contingency model of leader effectiveness. Journal of Personnel Social Psychology, 24, 172-177.
- Cherrington, D. J., Condie, S. J., & England, J. I. (1979). Age and work values. Academy of Management Journal, 22, 617-627.
- Clover, W. H. (1990). Transformational leaders: team performance, leadership ratings and first-hand impressions. In K. B. Clark and M. Clark (Eds.), Measures of leadership (pp. 171-184). West Orange, N.J.: Leadership Library of America, Inc.
- Cohen, M., & March, J. G. (1975). Leadership and ambiguity. The American College President. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Compensation Adjustments Steering Committee (1991). Memorandum: Wage Compensation Phase II - Wage Compensation Project, March 21, 1991. Ministry of Community and Social Services.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. M. (1988). Charismatic leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. M. (1988). The empowerment process: integrating theory and practice. Academy of Management Review, 13(3), 471-482.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. M. (1987). Toward a behavioural theory of charismatic leadership in organizational setting. Academy of Management Review, 12(4), 637-647.

Cook, J. D., Hepworth, J. S., Wall, T. D., & Warr, P. B. (1981). The experience of work: a compendium and review of 149 measures and their use. London: Academic Press.

Cook, R. A. (1985). Organization development in different types of organizations. In E. F. Huse & T. G. Cumming (Eds.), Organization, development and change. 3rd Edition. (pp. 410-446). New York: West Publishing Company.

Crampton, H. M., & Keiser, K. K. (1970). Social welfare: institution and process. New York: Random House.

Crook, J. H. (1986). The evolution of leadership: a preliminary skirmish. In C. F. Graumann & S. Moscovici (Eds.), Changing conceptions of leadership. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Crouch, A., & Yetton, P. (1988). Manager/subordinate dyads: relationships among task and social contact, manager friendliness and subordinate performance in management groups. Organizational Behavioural Human Decision Processes, 41, 65-82.

Crouch, A., & Yetton, P. (1987). Manager behaviour, leadership, style, and subordinate performance: an empirical extension of the Vroom-Yetton conflict rule. Organizational Behavioural Human Decision Processes, 39, 384-396.

Cummin, P. C. (1967). TAT correlates of executive performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 51, 78-81.

Cumming, T. G. (1984). Designing effective work groups. Handbook of Organizational Design. Vol. 2, 250-271. Edited by P. C. Nystrom & W. H. Starbuck. New York: Oxford University Press.

Curtis, R. L. (1989). Leadership decision-making in a service organization: a field test of the Vroom-Yetton model. Human Relations, 42, 671-689.

Cushman, M. L. (1977). A political approach to organizations. Academy of Management Review, 2(2), 206-216.

- Cyert, R. M. (1975). Management of non-profit organizations. In R. M. Cyert (Ed.), The management of non-profit organizations. Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books.
- Dansereau, Jr., F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: a longitudinal investigation of the role-making process. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 13, 46-78.
- Day, D. V., & Lord, R. G. (1988). Executive leadership and organizational performance: suggestions for a new theory and methodology. Journal of Management, 14, 453-464.
- Dellva, W. L., Teaf, R. K., & McElroy, J. C. (1985). Leader behaviour and subordinate low stress: a path analysis. Journal of Political and Military Sociology, 13(2), 183-193.
- Deluga, R. J., & Souza, J. (1991). The effects of transformational and transactional leadership styles on influencing behaviour of subordinate police officers. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 64, 49-55.

- Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader/Member exchange model of leadership: a critique and further development. Academy of Management Review, 11, 618-634.
- Donley, R. E., & Winter, D. G. (1970). Measuring the motives of public officials at a distance: an exploratory study of American presidents. Behavioural Science, 15, 227-236.
- Dornbush, S. M., & Scott, R. W. (1975). Evaluation and the exercise of authority. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Drucker, P. F. (1977). Managing the public service institution. In D. Borst & P. J. Montana (Eds.), Managing non-profit organizations. New York: Amacom.
- Downey, H. K., Sheridan, J. E., & Slocum, Jr., J. W. (1975). Analysis of relationships among leader behaviour, subordinate job performance and satisfaction: a path-goal approach. Academy of Management Journal, 18(2), 251-262.
- Dunnette, M. D. (1971). Multiple assessment procedures in identifying and developing managerial talent. In P. McReynolds (Ed.), Advances in Psychological Assessment, (2). Palo, Alto, Calif.: Science and Behaviour Books.

Economic Overview. The Ministry of Treasury and Economics.
September 26, 1991.

Etzioni, A. (1964). Modern organizations.
Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Evan, W. M. (1976). Organizational theory and organizational effectiveness: an exploratory analysis. In S. L. Spray (Ed.), Organizational effectiveness: theory research utilization. Kent State University: Kent State University Press.

Evan, W. M., & Zelditch, M. (1961). A laboratory experiment on bureaucratic authority. American Sociological Review, 26, 883-893.

Evans, M. G. (1973). A leader's ability to differentiate: the subordinate's perception of the leader and subordinate's performance. Personnel Psychology, 26, 385-395.

Evans, M. G. (1970). The effects of supervisory behaviour on the path-goal relationship. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 5, 277-298.

- Fiedler, F. E. (1986). The contribution of cognitive resources and behaviour to leadership performance. In C. F. Graumann & S. Moscovici (Eds.), Changing conceptions of leadership. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1978). A contingency model and dynamics of leadership process. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), Advances in experimental social psychology. New York: Academic Press.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967). A theory of leadership effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fiedler, F. E., & Garcia, J. E. (1987). New approaches to effective leadership: cognitive resources and organizational performance. New York: Wiley.
- Fiedler, F. E., O'Brien, G. E., & Ilgen, D. R. (1969). The effect of leadership style upon the performance and adjustment of volunteer teams operating in successful foreign environment. Human Relations, 22, 503-514.
- Filley, A. C., House, R. J., & Kerr, S. (1976). Managerial process and organizational behaviour. Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman.

Fleischman, E. A., & Harris, E. F. (1962). Patterns of leadership behaviour related to employee grievances and turnover. Personnel Psychology, 15, 43-56.

Fleischman, E. A., & Peters, D. R. (1962). Interpersonal values, leadership attitudes and managerial success. Personnel Psychology, 15, 127-143.

Fox, W. M. (1974). Least preferred co-worker scales: research and development. (Technical Report No. 70-5). Gainesville: University of Florida.

Fram, E. (1982). Do human service executives need management education? Administration in Social Work, Summer, 70-74.

Franklin, J. L. (1975). Relations among four social psychology aspects of organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 20, 422-434.

French, J. R. P., & Raven, B. (1959). The basis of social power. In Cartwright (Ed.), Studies in social power. Institute for Social Research. Ann Arbor, Mich.

Friedlander, F., & Pickle, H. (1968). Components of effectiveness in small organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 13, 289-304.

- Fulk, J., & Cumming, T. G. (1984). Refocusing leadership: a modest proposal. In J. G. Hunt, D. Hosking, C. A. Schriesheim, & R. Stewart (Eds.), Leaders and managers: international perspective on managerial behaviour and leadership (pp. 63-81). New York: Pergamon Press.
- Gamson, W. A. (1968). Power and discontent. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press.
- Gardner, J. W. (1986). The nature of leadership: introductory considerations. Washington, D.C.: Independent Sector.
- Gast, I. L. (1984). Leader discretion as a key component of a manager's role. In J. G. Hunt, D. Hosking, C. A. Schriesheim, & R. Stewart (Eds.), Leaders and managers: international perspective on managerial behaviour and leadership (pp. 350-359). New York: Pergamon Press.
- Georgopoulos, B. S., Mahoney, G. M., & Jones, N. W. (1957). A path-goal approach to productivity. Journal of Applied Psychology, 41, 345-353.
- Ghorpade, J. (1970). Assessment of organization effectiveness. Santa Monica, Calif.: Goodyear.

Glisson, C. (1989). The effect of leadership on workers in human services organizations. Administrative Leadership in the Social Services.

Goodman, P. (1979). Assessing organizational change. New York: Wiley.

Goodman, P., & Pennings, J. M. (1980). Critical issues in assessing organizational effectiveness. In E. Lawlor, D. Nadler, & C. Coman (Eds.), Organizational assessment perspectives on the measurement of organizational behaviour and quality of work life (pp. 189-215). New York: Wiley.

Goodman, P., & Pennings, J. M. (1977). New perspectives on organizational effectiveness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Graen, G. (1976). Role making processes within complex organizations. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology (pp. 1201-1245). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Graen, G., & Cashman, J. F. (1975). A role-making model of leadership in formal organizations: a developmental approach. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), Leadership frontiers. Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.

- Graen, G., Novak, M., & Sommerkamp, P. (1982). The effects of leader/member exchange and job design on productivity and satisfaction: testing a dual attachment model. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 30, 109-131.
- Graen, G., Orris, J., & Alvares, K. M. (1971). Contingency model of leadership effectiveness: some experimental results. Journal of Applied Psychology, 55, 196-201.
- Graen, G., Orris, J., & Johnson, T. (1973). Role simulation in a complex organization. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 3, 395-420.
- Graumann, C. F. (1986). Power and leadership in Lewinian Field Theory: recalling an interrupted task. In C. F. Graumann & S. Moscovici (Eds.), Changing conceptions of leadership. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Green, C. N. (1976). Disenchantment with leadership research: some causes, recommendations, and alternative directions. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), Leadership: the cutting edge (pp. 57-67). Carbondale, Ill: Southern Illinois University Press.

- Green, S. G., Nebekar, D. M., & Boni, M. A. (1974).
Personality and situational effects in leader behaviour.
(Technical Report No. 74-55). Seattle: University of
Washington Organizational Research.
- Grimes, A. J. (1978, October). Authority, power influence
and social control: a theoretical synthesis. The
Academy of Management Review, 724-735.
- Gruber, M. (1986). A three-factor model of administrative
effectiveness. Administration in Social Work,
Fall, 10(3), 1-14.
- Gruenfeld, L. W., Rance, D. E., & Weissenberg, P. (1969).
The behaviour of task-oriented (low LPC) and socially-
oriented (high LPC) leaders under several conditions
of social support. Journal of Social Psychology,
79, 99-107.
- Gruman, B. (1989). The well-managed human service
organization: criteria for a management audit.
Administration in Social Work, 12(4), 17-27.
- Hackman, J. R., & Lawler III, L. E. (1971). Employee
reaction to job characteristics. Journal of Applied
Psychology, 55, 259-286.

- Hambrick, D. C., & Finkelstein, S. (1987). Managerial discretion: a bridge between polar views and organizational outcomes. In B. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), Research in organizational behaviour, 7. Greenwich, Conn.: JAI.
- Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper echelons: the organization as a reflection of its top managers. Academy of Management Review, 9, 193-206.
- Hammer, T. H., & Turk, J. M. (1987). Organizational determinants of leader behaviour and authority. Journal of Applied Psychology, 72, 674-682.
- Harrison, M. T., & Beyer, J. M. (1986). Charisma and its routinization in two social movement organizations. Research in Organizational Behaviour, 8, 113-164.
- Harschbarger, D. (1975). The human service organization. In H. S. Demone & D. Harschbarger (Eds.), A handbook of human service organizations. New York: Behavioural Publications.
- Hart, A. F. (1988). Training social administrators for leadership in the coming decades. Administration in Social Work, 12(3), 1-11.

Hasenfeld, Y., & English, R. A. (Eds.), (1977). Human service organizations. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Hater, J. J. (1986). Leadership excellence study.
Unpublished manuscript.

Hater, J. J., & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. Journal of Applied Psychology, 73(4), 695-702.

Hayden, Jr., W. (1991). Professionalism with respect to the leadership behaviour of social work administrators.
Doctoral dissertation, The University of Toronto.

Hellriegel, D., & Slocum, Jr., J. W. (1979). Organizational behaviour (2nd ed.). New York West Publishing Company.

Hemphill, J. K. (1960). Dimensions of executive positions.
Columbus, OH: Bureau of Business Research,
Ohio State University.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1977). Management of organization behaviour: utilizing human resources.
Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Hersey, P. (1984). The situational leader. New York: Warner.

Hoffman, E., & Roman, P. M. (1984). Criterion-related validity of the least preferred co-worker measure. Journal of Social Psychology, 122(1), 79-84.

Hollander, E. P. (1979). Leadership and social exchange processes. In K. Gergen, M. S. Greenberg, & R. H. Willis (Eds.), Social exchange: advances in theory and research. New York: Winston Wiley.

Hollander, E. P. (1964). Leaders, groups and influence. New York: Oxford University Press.

Hollander, E. P. (1961). Some effects of perceived status on responses to innovative behaviour. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 63, 247-250.

Hollander, E. P., & Offerman, L. R. (1990). Power and leadership in organizations: relationships in transition. American Psychologist, 45, 179-189.

Holloman, C. R. (1984). Leadership and headship: there is a difference. In W. Rosenbach & R. Taylor (Eds.), Contemporary issues in leadership (pp. 109-116). Boulder: Westview Press.

- House, R. J. (1977). A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), Leadership: the cutting edge (pp. 189-204). Carbondale, Ill.: Southern Illinois University Press.
- House, R. J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. Administrative Science Quarterly, 16, 321-338.
- House, R. J., & Mitchell, T. R. (1974). Path-goal theory of leadership. Contemporary Business, 3, 81-98.
- House, R. J., & Singh, J. B. (1987). Organizational behaviour: some new directions for I/O psychology. Annual Review of Psychology, 38, 669-718.
- House, R. J., Spangler, W. D., & Woycke, J. (1991). Personality and charisma in the U.S. Presidency: a psychological theory of leader effectiveness. Administrative Science Quarterly, 36, 364-396.
- Howell, J. M. (1986, January). Charismatic leadership: effects of leadership style and group productivity on individual adjustment and performance. Doctoral dissertation, The University of British Columbia.
- Howell, J. M., & Frost, P. J. (1989). A laboratory study of charismatic leadership. Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, 43, 243-269.

Howell, J. P., Bowen, D. E., Dorfman, P. W., Kerr, S.,
& Podsakoff, P. M. (1990). Substitutes for leadership:
effective alternatives to ineffective leadership.
Organizational Dynamics, Summer, 1990, 21-38.

Howell, J. P., & Dorfman, P. W. (1986). Leadership and
substitutes for leadership among professional and
non-professional workers. The Journal of Applied
Behavioural Science, 22, (1), 29-46.

Huck, J. R. (1973). Assessment centres: a review of
external and internal validities. Personnel
Psychology, 26, 191-212.

Hunt, J. G. (1984). Leadership and managerial behaviour.
Science and Research Associates Inc., New York.

Hunt, J. G., & Schuler, R. S. (1976). Leader reward and
sanctions: Behaviour relations criteria in a large
public utility. Carbondale, Ill.: University Press.

Investing in Ontario's Future: Strategic directions of
M.C.S.S. June, 1986.

Ironson, G. H., Smith, P. C., Brannick, M. T., Gibson, W. M.,
& Paul, K. B. (1989). Construction of a job in general
scale: a comparison of global, composite, and specific
measures. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 139-200.

Jacobs, T. O. (1970). Leadership and exchange in formal organizations. Alexandria, Va.: Human Resources Research Organization.

Janda, K. F. (1960). Towards the explication of the concept of leadership in terms of the concept of power. Human Relations, 13, 345-363.

Jenkins, W. O. (1947). A review of leadership studies with particular reference to military problems. Psychological Bulletin, 44, 54-79.

Johns, G. (1978). Task moderators of the relationship between leadership style and subordinate responses. Academy of Management Journal, 21, 319-325.

Kadushin, A. (1985). Supervision in Social Work. 2nd Edition. New York: Columbia University Press.

Kahn, A. J. (1973). Social policy and social services. New York: Random House.

Kanter, R. M. (1977). Men and women of the corporation. New York: Basic Books.

Karmel, B. (1978). Leadership: a challenge to traditional research methods and assumptions. Academy of Management Review, 3, 475-482.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1966). The social psychology of organizations (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1952). Some recent findings in human relations research. In E. Swanson, T. Newcomb, & E. Hartly (Eds.), Reading in social psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Katz, D., Maccoby, N., & Morse, N. (1950). Productivity, supervision and morale in an office situation. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Institute for Social Research.

Katz, R. L. (1955, January/February). Skills of an effective administrator. Harvard Business Review, 33-42.

Keeley, M. (1978). A social justice approach to organizational evaluation. Administrative Science Quarterly, 22, 272-292.

Keller, R. T. (1989). A test of the path-goal theory of leadership with need for clarity as a moderator in research and development organizations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 208-212.

Kerber, K. W., & Campbell, J. P. (1987). Component structure of a measure of job facet satisfaction: stability across job levels. Educational Psychological Measures, 47, 815-823.

- Kerr, S., & Harlan, A. (1973). Predicting the effects of leadership training and experience from the contingency model: some remaining problems. Journal of Applied Psychology, 57, 114-117.
- Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership: their meaning and measurement. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 22, 375-403.
- Kerr, S., Schriesheim, C. A., Murphy, J., & Stogdill, R. M. (1974). Toward a contingency theory of leadership based upon consideration and initiating structure literature. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 12, 62-82.
- Kimmers, M. M., & Skrzypek, G. J. (1972). Experimental test of the contingency model of leadership effectiveness. Journal of Personal Social Psychology, 24, 172-177.
- Klein, S. M., & Maher, J. R. (1966). Education and satisfaction with pay. Personnel Psychology, 18, 195-208.
- Kochen, T. A., Schmidt, S. S., & DeCotiis, T. A. (1975). Superior subordinate relations: leadership and headship. Human Relations, 28, 279-294.

Komaki, J. (1986). Toward effective supervision: an operant analysis and comparison of managers at work. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, 270-279.

Komaki, J., Desselles, M. L., & Bowman, E. D. (1989). Definitely not a breeze: extending an operant model of effective supervision to teams. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 522-529.

Korman, A. K. (1966). Consideration, initiating structure, and organization criteria - a review. Personnel Psychology, 19, 349-362.

Kouzes, K. M., & Mico, P. R. (1979). Domain theory: an introduction to organizational behaviour in human service organizations. Journal of Applied Behavioural Science, 15, 449-469.

Kuhnert, K. W., & Lewis, P. (1987). Transactional and transformational leadership: a constructive developmental analysis. Academy of Management Review, 12(4), 648-657.

Leavitt, H. (1965). Applied organizational change in industry: structural technological and humanistic approaches. In J. March (Ed.), Handbook of Organizations (p. 1145). Chicago: Rand McNally and Company.

- Lee, J. A. (1977). Leader power for managing change. Academy of Management Review, 2, 73-80.
- Lee, R., Mueller, L. B., & Miller, K. J. (1981). Sex, wage-earner status, occupational level and job satisfaction. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 18, 362-373.
- Lee, R., & Wilbur, E. R. (1985). Age, education, job tenure, salary, job characteristics and job satisfaction: a multi-variant analysis. Human Relations, 38(8), 781-791.
- Levine, S., & White, P. E. (1971, March). Exchange as a conceptual framework for the study of inter-organizational relationships. Administrative Science Quarterly, 583-601.
- Lewin, K. (1951). Field theory and social science. (D. Cartwright, ed.). New York: Harper & Row.
- Lewis, J. A., & Lewis, M. D. (1983). Management of Human Service Programmes. Monterey, Calif.: Brooks Cole Publishing Company.
- Liden, R., & Graen, G. (1980). Generalizability of the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership. Academy of Management Journal, 23, 451-465.

- Lieberson, S., & O'Connor, J. F. (1972). Leadership and organizational performance: a study of large corporations. American Sociological Review, 37, 117-130.
- Likert, R. (1967). The human organization.
New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Litwin, G. H., & Stringer, P. A. (1966). Motivation and organizational climate. Boston: Division of Research, Harvard Business School.
- Lord, R. D., & Smith, J. E. (1983). Theoretical information processing and situational factors affecting attribution theory models of organizational behaviour. Academy of Management Review, 8, 50-60.
- Lord, R. G., DeVater, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relationship between personality traits and leadership perceptions: an application of validity generalization procedures. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71(3), 402-410.
- McCall, Jr., M. W. (1979). Power, authority and influence in organization behaviour. (S. Kerr, Ed.).
Columbus, OH: Grid.

McCall, Jr., M. W., & Lombardo, M. M. (Eds.) (1978).
Leadership: where else can we go? Durham, N.C.:
Duke University Press.

McClelland, D. (1975). Power: the inner experience.
New York: Irvington.

McClure, J. F. (1979). Introduction: the problem of
product. In J. F. McClure (Ed.), Managing human
services. Davis, Calif.: International Dialogue
Press.

McElroy, J. C. (1982). A typology of attribution research.
Academy of Management Review, 7, 413-417.

Maier, N. R. F. (1963). Problem-solving discussions and
conferences: leadership methods and skills.
New York: McGraw-Hill.

Mann, F. C. (1965). Toward an understanding of the
leadership role in formal organization. In R. Dubin,
G. C. Homans, F. C. Mann, & E. C. Miller (Eds.),
Leadership and productivity. San Francisco: Chandler.

Mann, F. C., & Dent, J. (1954). The supervisor: member of
two organizational families. Harvard Business Review,
32(6), 103-112.

- Martin, S. A. (1985). An essential grace. Toronto: McClelland & Stewart.
- Matteson, M. T., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1988). Controlling work stress. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mauer, J. G. (1969). Work role involvement of industrial supervisors. East Lansing: Michigan State University, Bureau of Business and Economic Research.
- Meindl, J. R., & Ehrlich, S. B. (1987). The romance of leadership and the evaluation of organizational performance. Academy of Management Journal, 30(1), 91-109.
- Meindl, J. R., Ehrlich, S. B., & Dukerich, J. M. (1985). The romance of leadership. Administrative Science Quarterly, 30, 78-102.
- Meyer, C. H. (1976). Social work practice. New York: The Free Press.
- Middleman, R. R., & Rhodes, G. B. (1985). Competent supervision: making imaginative judgments. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Miles, R. H., & Petty, M. M. (1977). Leader effectiveness in small bureaucracies. Academy of Management Journal, 20, 238-250.

Miner, J. B. (1978). Twenty years of research on role motivation theory of managerial effectiveness. Personnel Psychology, 31, 7399-760.

Miner, J. B. (1975). The uncertain future of the leadership concept: an overview. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), Leadership frontiers (pp. 197-208). Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.

Miner, J. B., Rizzo, J. R., Harlow, D. N., & Hill, J. W. (1974). Role motivation theory of managerial effectiveness in simulated organizations of varying degrees of structure. Journal of Applied Psychology, 59, 31-37.

Ministry of Community and Social Services News. (1992). Communications and marketing branch, M.C.S.S. Jack Stiff, Editor. May, 2(4).

Mintzberg, H. (1984). A comprehensive description of managerial work. In W. Rosenbach and R. Taylor (Eds.), Contemporary Issues and Leadership (pp. 78-104). Boulder: Westview Press.

Mintzberg, H. (1979). The structuring of organizations. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Mintzberg, H. (1975). Power in and around organizations. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Mintzberg, H. (1973). The nature of managerial work.

New York: Harper & Row.

Mitchell, T. R. (1974). Expectancy models of job satisfaction, occupational preference and effort: a theoretical, methodological and empirical appraisal. Psychological Bulletin, 81, 1053-1077.

Morgan, G. (1986). Images of organization.

Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications.

Mott, P. E. (1972). The characteristics of effective organizations. New York: Harper & Row.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1982). Employee commitment, turnover and absenteeism.

New York: Academic Press.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment.

Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 14, 224-247.

Murray, M., & Atkinson, T. (1981). Gender differences in correlates of job satisfaction. Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 13, 44-52.

Nadler, D. A. (1977). Feedback and organization development: using database methods.

Reading, Mass.: Madison-Wesley.

Nadler, D. A., Hackman, J. R., & Lawler III, L. E. (1979). Managing organizational behaviour.

Boston: Little Brown and Company.

Neider, L. L. (1988, March). A review of new approaches to effective leadership: cognitive resources and organizational performance. Administrative Science Quarterly, 135-139.

Newcomer, L. L. (1985, Spring/Summer). Limitations of Fiedler's contingency model of leadership styles. The Wisconsin Sociologist, 22, 79-84.

Newman, W. H., & Wallender, H. W. (1978). Managing not-for-profit enterprises. Academy of Management Review, 3(1), 24-31.

Nightingale, D. B. (1982). Workplace Democracy: an inquiry into employee participation in Canadian work organizations. Toronto: University of Toronto.

Norusis, M. J. (1990). SPSS/PC Plus 4.0 Base Manual. Chicago, Ill.: SPSS Incorporated.

O'Reilly III, C. A. (1991). Organizational behaviour: where we've been, where we're going. Annual Review of Psychology, 42, 427-458.

O'Reilly III, C. A. (1989). Corporations, culture and commitment: motivation and social control in organizations. California Management Review, 31, 9-25.

Osborn, R. N. (1974). Discussant comments. In J. G. Hunt and L. L. Larson (Eds.), Contingency approaches to leadership. Carbondale, Ill.: Southern Illinois University Press.

Osborn, R. N., & Hunt, J. G. (1975). An adaptive reactive theory of leadership: the role of macro-variables in leadership research. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), Leadership Frontiers (pp. 27-44). Kent, OH: Comparative Administration Research Institute.

Osborn, R. N., Hunt, J. G., & Jauch, L. R. (1980). Organization theory - an integrated approach (p.464). New York: Wiley.

Patti, R. (1986). Advancing administration in social work: two views. Administration in Social Work, Fall, 10(3), 25-35.

Patti, R. (1984). Who leads the human services?

Administration in Social Work, Fall, 14-19.

Patti, R., Diedreck, E., Olson, D., & Crowell (1979). From

direct service to administration. Administration
in Social Work, Spring, 134-140.

Perlmutter, F. D., & Slavin, S. (Eds.) (1980). Leadership

in social administration. Philadelphia: Temple
University Press.

Pfeffer, J. (1977). The ambiguity of leadership. Academy of

Management Review, 2, 104-112.

Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G. R. (1978). The external control

of organizations: a resource dependence perspective.
New York: Harper & Row.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H.,

& Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviours
and their effects on followers, trust in leader,
satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviours.
Leadership Quarterly, 1(2), 107-142.

- Podsakoff, P. M., Todor, W. D., & Skov, R. (1982). Effects of leader performance contingent and non-contingent reward and punishment behaviours on subordinate performance and satisfaction. Academy of Management Journal, 25, 812-821.
- Pondy, L. R. (1978). Leadership is a language game. In M. W. McCall & M. M. Lombardo (Eds.), Leadership: where else can we go? Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press.
- Potts, K. T. (1985). Survey of leadership in social service agencies. Dissertation Information Services, University of Michigan.
- Price, J. L. (1968). Organizational effectiveness: an inventory of propositions. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin Press.
- Puffer, S. (1990). Attributes of charismatic leadership: the impact of decision style, outcome and observer characteristics. Leadership Quarterly, 1(3), 177-192.
- Rhodes, S. R. (1983). Age-related differences in work attitudes and behaviour: a review and conceptual analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 93, 328-367.

- Roberts, N. C. (1985). Transforming leadership: a process of collective action. Human Relations, 38(11), 1023-1046.
- Roberts, N. C., & Bradley, R. T. (1988). Limits of charisma. In J. A. Conger & R. M. Kanungo (Eds.), Charismatic leadership: the elusive factor in organizational effectiveness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Rosen, D. (1984). Leadership systems in world cultures. In B. Kellerman (Ed.), Leadership multidisciplinary perspectives. N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Rossi, P. H. (1978). Some issues in the evaluation of human services delivery. In R. C. Sarri & Y. Hasenfeld (Eds.), The management of human services. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Roznowski, M. (1989). Examination of the measurement properties of the job descriptive index with experimental items. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 805-814.
- Ryan, M. (1984). Theories of power. In A. Kakabadse & C. Parker (Eds.), Power, politics and organizations - a behavioural science view. New York: Wiley.

Sainsbury, E. (1977). Personal social services.

London: Pitman Publishing.

Salancik, G. R., Calder, D. J., Rowland, K. M.,

Leblebici, H., & Conway, M. (1975). Leadership
as an outcome of social structure and process:

a multi-dimensional analysis. In J. G. Hunt and

L. L. Larson (Eds.), Leadership frontiers (pp. 81-102).

Kent, OH: Comparative Administration Research
Institute, Kent State University.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1977). Constraints on
administrative discretion: the limited influence of
mayors on city budgets. Urban Affairs Quarterly,
12, 475-498.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1977, Summer). Who gets
power and how they hold on to it: a strategic contin-
gency model of power. Organization Dynamics, 5, 3-21.

Sashkin, M. (1988). The visionary leader. In J. A. Conger &
R. M. Kanungo (Eds.), Charismatic leadership: the
elusive factor in organizational effectiveness
(pp. 122-160). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Sashkin, M. (1972). Leadership style and group decision effectiveness: correlational and behavioural tests of Fiedler's contingency model. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 8, 347-362.
- Scandura, T. A., & Graen, G. B. (1984). Moderating effects of initial leader-member exchange status on the effects of leadership intervention. Journal of Applied Psychology, 69, 429-436.
- Scarpello, V., & Vandenberg, R. (1987). The satisfaction with my supervisor scale: its utility for research and practical applications. Journal of Management, 13, 447-466.
- Schriesheim, C. A., and Kerr, S. (1977). R.I.P. LPC: a response to Fiedler. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), Leadership: the cutting edge. Carbondale, Ill.: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Schriesheim, C. A., & Von Glinow, M. A. (1977). The path-goal theory of leadership: a theoretical and empirical analysis. Academy of Management Journal, 20, 398-405.
- Schriesheim, J. F. (1980). The social context of leader-subordinate relations: an investigation of the effects of group cohesiveness. Journal of Applied Psychology, 65, 183-194.

- Sheridan, J. E., Vredenburg, D. J., & Abelson, M. A. (1984). Contextual model of leadership influence on hospital units. Academy of Management Journal, 27(1), 57-78.
- Shiflett, S. C. (1973). The contingency model of leadership effectiveness: some implications of its statistical and methodological properties. Behavioural Science, 18, 429-440.
- Shortell, S. M., & Zajac, E. J. (1990). Health care organizations and the development of the strategic management perspective. In S. Mick & Associates (Eds.), Innovations in health care delivery. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Skinner, E. W. (1969). Relationship between leadership patterns and organizational-situational variables. Personnel Psychology, 22, 489-494.
- Smith, B. J. (1982). An initial test of a theory of charismatic leadership based on the responses of subordinates. Unpublished manuscript, University of Toronto, Faculty of Management Studies, Toronto.
- Smith, J. E., Carson, K. P., & Alexander, R. A. (1984). Leadership: it can make a difference. Academy of Management Journal, 27(4), 765-776.

- Spray, S. L. (1976). Organizational effectiveness: theory, research and application.
Kent, OH: Kent State University Press.
- Srivastva, S. (1986). Executive power. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Staw, B. M. (1980). The consequences of turnover. Journal of Occupational Behaviour, I, 253-273.
- Steers, R. M. (1975). Problems in the measurement of organizational effectiveness. Administrative Science Quarterly, 20, 546-558.
- Stewart, R. (1982). The relevance of some studies of managerial work and behaviour to leadership research. In J. G. Hunt, U. Sekaran, & C. A. Schriesheim (Eds.), Leadership: beyond establishment views (pp. 11-30). Carbondale, Ill.: SIU Press.
- Stinson, J. E. (1972). Least preferred co-worker as a measure of leadership style. Psychological Report, 30, p. 930.
- Stinson, J. E., & Johnson, T. W. (1975). The path-goal theory of leadership: a partial test and suggested refinement. Academy of Management Journal 18, 242-252.

Stogdill, R. M. (1974). Handbook of leadership: a survey of theory and research. New York: Free Press.

Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: a survey of the literature. Journal of Psychology, 26, 35-71.

Sugarman, B. (1989). The well managed human service organization. Administration in Social Work, 12(4), 17-27.

Sutton, C. D., & Woodman, R. W. (1989). Pygmalion goes to work: the effects of supervisor expectations in a retail setting. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 943-950.

Tannenbaum, R., & Schmidt, W. H. (1958, March/April). How to choose a leadership pattern. Harvard Business Review, 36, 91-101.

Tannenbaum, R., Weschler, I. R., & Massarik, F. (1961). Leadership and organization. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Thomas, A. B. (1988). Does leadership make a difference to organizational performance? Administrative Science Quarterly, 33, 388-400.

- Thomas, G. (1989). Training social administrators for leadership in the coming decades. Administration in Social Work, 12(3), 1-11.
- Tichy, N. M. (1984). Networks in organization. Handbook of Organizational Design. Vol. 2. 225-249. Edited by P. C. Nystrom & W. H. Starbuck. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Tichy, N. M. (1975). How different types of change agents diagnose organizations. Human Relations, 28, 771-779.
- Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A. (1986). The transformational leader. New York: Wiley.
- Tichy, N. M., & Ulrich, D. (1984). The leadership challenge: a call for the transformational leader. Sloan Management Review, 26, 59-68.
- Trice, H. M., & Beyer, J. M. (1986). Charisma and its routinization in two social movement organizations. Research in Organizational Behaviour, 8, 113-164.

- Tsui, A. S. (1984). A multiple-constituency framework of managerial reputational effectiveness. In J. G. Hunt, D. Hosking, C. A. Schriesheim, & R. Stewart (Eds.), Leaders and managers: international perspectives on managerial behaviour and leadership (pp. 38-44). New York: Pergamon Press.
- Tucker, R. C. (1970). "The theory of charismatic leadership" in D. A. Rustow (Ed.), Philosophers and kings: studies in leadership. New York: Braziller.
- Turban, D. B., & Jones, A. P. (1988). Supervisor-subordinate similarity: types, effects, and mechanisms. Journal of Applied Psychology, 73, 228-234.
- Tushman, M. L. (1977). A political approach to organizations: a review and rationale. Academy of Management Review, 2, 206-216.
- Vecchio, R. P. (1990). Theoretical and empirical examination of cognitive resource theory. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, 141-147.
- Vroom, V. H. (1973, Spring). A new look at managerial decision-making. Organizational Dynamics, 66-80.

- Vroom, V. H. (1964). Work and motivation. Yale School of Organization and Management. Malabar, Fla.: Robert E. Krieger Publishing Company.
- Vroom, V. H., & Jago, A. G. (1978). On the validity of the Vroom-Yetton Model. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, 151-162.
- Vroom, V. H. & Yetton, P. W. (1973). Leadership and decision-making. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Wagner, W. G., Pfeffer, J., & O'Reilly III, C. A. (1984). Organizational demography and turnover in top management groups. Administrative Science Quarterly, 29, March, 74-92.
- Waldman, D. A., Bass, B. M., & Einstein, W. O. (1987). Leadership outcomes of performance appraisal processes. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 60, 177-186.
- Waldman, D. A., Bass, B. M., & Yammarino, F. J. (1990). Adding to contingent reward behaviour: the augmenting effect of charismatic leadership. Group and Organizational Studies, 15(4), December, 381-394.

- Weick, K. (1978). The spines of leaders. In M. W. McCall & M. M. Lombardo (Eds.), Leadership: where else can we go? (pp. 37-61). Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press.
- Weick, K. E., & Daft, R. L. (1983). The effectiveness of interpretation systems. In K. S. Cameron & D. A. Whetten (Eds.), Organization effectiveness: a comparison of multiple models (pp. 71-93). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Weiner, N. (1978). Situational and leadership influences on organization performance. Proceedings of the Academy of Management (pp. 230-234).
- Weiner, N., & Mahoney, T. A. (1981). A model of corporate performance as a function of environmental, organizational and leadership influences. Academy of Management Journal, 24, 453-470.
- Welbourn, S. (1985). The nature of executive work in social service organizations. Doctoral dissertation, The University of Toronto.
- White, S. L. (1981). Managing health and human service programmes. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company Inc.

- Whittington, H. (1973). People make programmes: personnel management. In S. Feldman (Ed.), The administration of mental health services. Springfield, Ill.: Thomas.
- Winter, D. G. (1973). The power motive. New York: Free Press.
- Wofford, J. C., & Srinivafan, T. M. (1983). Experimental tests of leader-environment-follower interaction theory of leadership. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 32, 35-54.
- Yuchtman, E., & Seashore, S. E. (1967). A system resource approach to organizational effectiveness. Administrative Science Quarterly, 32, 377-395.
- Yukl, G. A. (1981). Leadership in organizations. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Yukl, G. A., & Van Fleet, D. D. (1982). Cross-situational multi-method research on military leader effectiveness. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 30, 87-108.

Zahn, D. L., & Wolf, G. (1981). Leadership and the art of psycho-maintenance: a simulation model of superior-subordinate interaction. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 28, 26-49.

Zaleznik, A. (1977). Managers and leaders: are they different? Harvard Business Review, 55(3), 67-78.

Zammuto, R. F. (1982). Assessing organizational effectiveness: systems change, adaptation and strategy. Albany, N.Y.: Suny, Albany Press.

APPENDIX I

VROOM-YETTON DECISION MAKING PROCESSES

VROOM-YETTON DECISION MAKING PROCESSES

- A1. You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at the time.

- AII. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is in getting the information from them. The role played by your subordinates in making the decision is clearly one of providing necessary information to you, rather than generating or evaluating alternative solutions.

- CI. You share the problem with the relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.

CII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, obtaining their collective ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.

GII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of chairman. You do not try to influence the group to adopt "your" solution, and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group.

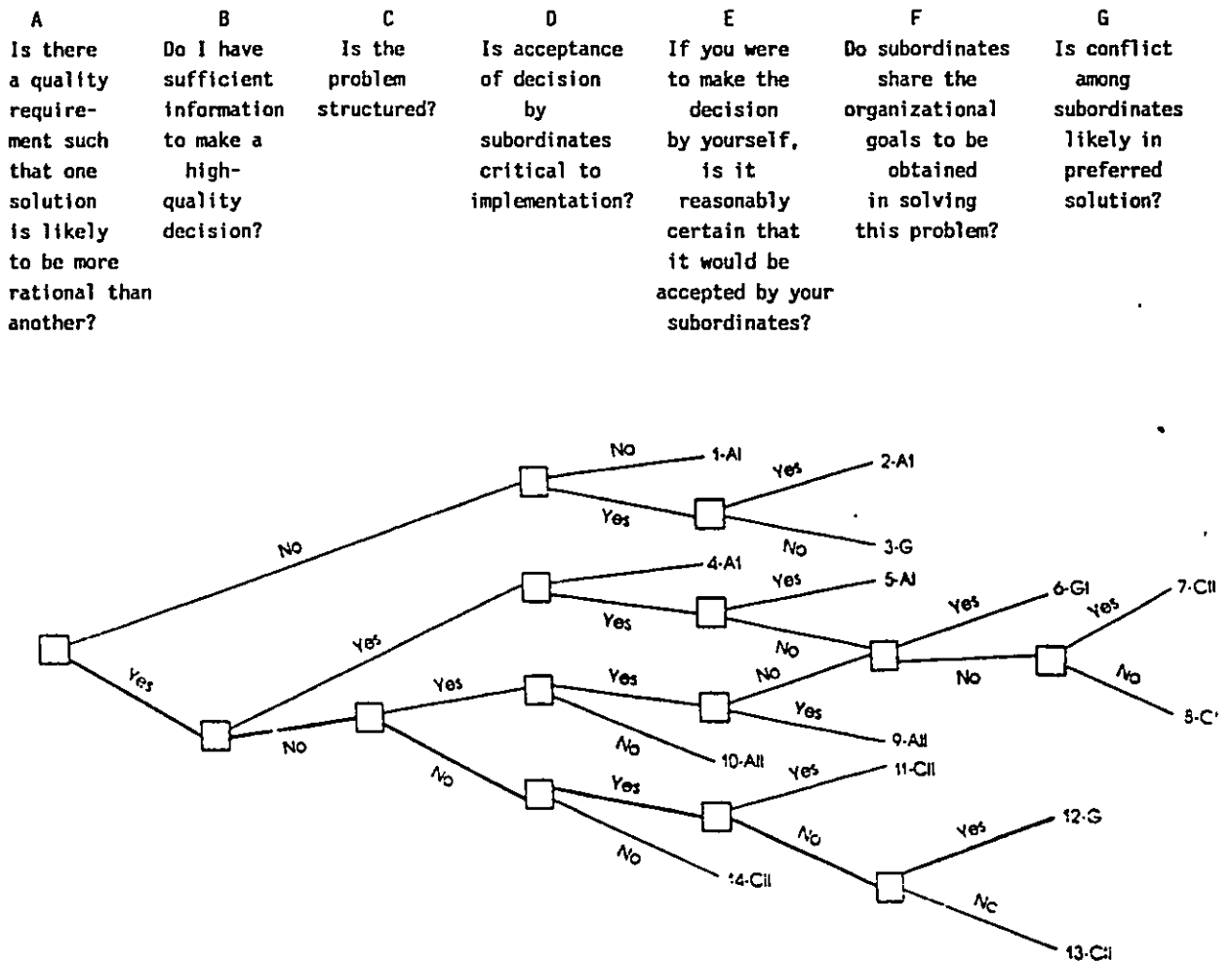
APPENDIX II

VROOM-YETTON

DECISION PROCESS FLOW CHART

THE VROOM-YETTON DECISION PROCESS FLOW CHART

Source: from Victor H. Vroom, "A New Look
at Managerial Decision-Making."



A1, A11, C1, C11, G represent decision-making styles ranging from authority through group or consensus. The numbers (1-14) represent different kinds of group problems in terms of their decision-making requirements.

APPENDIX III

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR QUESTIONNAIRE

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR/ADMINISTRATOR QUESTIONNAIRE

PART ONE: AGENCY PROFILE

Please answer the following questions by checking the appropriate category.

1. Location of your agency:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| a. Rural _____
(less than 5,000) | b. Town _____
(5,000 to 50,000) |
| c. City _____
(50,000 - 300,000) | d. Metropolitan area _____
(300,000 +) |

2. Type of organization:

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| a. C.A.S. _____ | b. C.M.H.C. _____ | c. Hospital _____ |
| d. Counselling agency _____ | e. Other _____ | |

3. Type of services provided:

- | | | |
|--|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a. Residential _____ | b. Day Treatment _____ | c. Outclient/Outpatient _____ |
| d. Consultation _____ | e. Child Protection _____ | |
| f. Range of inpatient medical services _____ | | |

4. Sponsorship of the agency:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| a. Government _____ | b. Consumer group _____ |
| c. Religious organization _____ | d. Local community _____
(Professionals, service group, etc.) |

5. Number of years in existence:

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| a. 5 years or less _____ | b. 6-10 _____ | c. 11-15 _____ |
| d. 16-20 _____ | e. 20+ _____ | |

6. Number of employees (F.T.E.):
 - a. 10 or less _____
 - b. 11-30 _____
 - c. 31-50 _____
 - d. 51-70 _____
 - e. 71-90 _____
 - f. 90+ _____

7. Indicate the agency's budget for:

1985/86 _____	1986/87 _____	1987/88 _____
1988/89 _____	1989/90 _____	1990/91 _____
1991/92 _____		

8. Estimate the source of 1991/92 income on a % basis:
 - a. Government grants _____
 - b. Fees _____
 - c. Fundraising _____
 - d. Other (describe) _____

9. Estimate the % of agency employees belonging to these professional groups:
 - a. Child Care Workers _____
 - b. Social Workers _____
 - c. Support Staff _____
 - d. Psychologists _____
 - e. Speech Therapists _____
 - f. Other _____

10. Estimate the % of your employees unionized: _____

11. Estimate your agency's staff turnover rate in:
 - a. 1989/90 _____
 - b. 1990/91 _____
 - c. 1991/92 _____

12. Estimate the average number of sick days taken by your employees over the past year:
 - a. 0-3 _____
 - b. 4-6 _____
 - c. 7-9 _____
 - d. 10-12 _____
 - e. more than 12 _____

13. How many sites does your agency operate from:
 - a. One _____
 - b. Two _____
 - c. Three to five _____
 - d. Six to eight _____
 - e. More than eight _____

PART TWO: EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR'S PROFILE

Please answer the following questions about yourself by checking the appropriate line.

14. Years of experience in this position: a. Less than 2 yrs ____
 b. 2-3 yrs ____ c. 4-5 yrs ____ d. 6-7 yrs ____
 e. 8-9 yrs ____ f. 10+ yrs ____
15. Years of experience as Executive Director/Administrator:
 a. Less than 2 yrs ____ b. 2-3 yrs ____ c. 4-5 yrs ____
 d. 6-7 yrs ____ e. 8-9 yrs ____ f. 10+ yrs ____
16. Your current age: a. less than 30 ____ b. 31-40 ____
 c. 41-50 ____ d. 51-60 ____ e. 60+ ____
17. Your approximate salary:
 a. less than \$50,000 ____ b. 51-60K ____ c. 61-70K ____
 d. 71-80K ____ e. 81-90K ____ f. \$91,000+ ____
18. Sex: Male ____ Female ____
19. Education/Training:
 a. High School Graduate ____ b. Community College degree ____
 c. Bachelor's Degree ____ d. Master's degree ____
 e. Doctorate degree ____ f. Other (please specify) _____
20. Religious involvement: I attend religious services
 a. regularly (2 or more times/month) ____
 b. occasionally (once per month) ____
 c. sometimes (several times per year) ____ d. not at all ____
21. Please rank the following in order of importance to you,
 e.g. 1, 2, 3, etc.:
 "I find meaning in and draw strength from ... "
 a. Family ____ b. Friends ____ c. Work ____
 d. Religious faith ____ e. Philosophy of life ____
 f. Other (Please describe) _____

PART THREE

DIRECTIONS: Listed below are descriptive statements of leaders. For each statement, we would like you to judge how frequently it fits your leadership style. When the item does not apply or you are uncertain please leave the answer blank.

e.g. "I am someone supervisees can discuss their problems with."

Using the key scale below, indicate the appropriate letter that describes the frequency of this behaviour.

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all

-
22. ____ am content to let others continue to do their jobs in the same way.
23. ____ talk optimistically about the future.
24. ____ treat people as individuals rather than just as members of the group.
25. ____ things have to go wrong for me to take action.
-
26. ____ persuade others to go beyond their own self interest.
27. ____ work out agreements with subordinates on what they will receive if they do what needs to be done.
28. ____ am alert to failure to meet standards.
29. ____ show the value of questioning assumptions.
-
30. ____ articulate a vision of future opportunities.
31. ____ listen to concerns.
32. ____ provide reasons to change a person's way of thinking about problems.
33. ____ talk about special rewards for good work.
-
34. ____ am a firm believer in "If it ain't broken, don't fix it."
35. ____ focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of employees.
36. ____ don't bother them, if they don't bother me.
37. ____ provide advice if it is needed.

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all
38.	_____	serve as a role model.			
39.	_____	make employees back up opinions with good reasoning.			
40.	_____	introduce new projects and new challenges.			
41.	_____	monitor performance for errors needing correction.			
42.	_____	as long as work meets minimal standards, I avoid trying to make improvements.			
43.	_____	avoid getting involved when important issues arise.			
44.	_____	show how to look at problems from new angles.			
45.	_____	set high standards for myself and others.			
46.	_____	tell supervisees what to do in order to be rewarded for their efforts.			
47.	_____	avoid making decisions.			
48.	_____	problems have to be chronic before I will take action.			
49.	_____	mobilize a collective sense of mission.			
50.	_____	point out what persons will receive if they do what is required.			
51.	_____	keep careful track of mistakes.			
52.	_____	serve as a teacher or coach as necessary.			
53.	_____	instill pride in being associated with the organization.			
54.	_____	engage in words and deeds which enhances my image of competence.			
55.	_____	make persons aware of strongly-held values, ideals and aspirations which are shared in common.			
56.	_____	demonstrate a strong conviction in my beliefs and values.			
57.	_____	project a powerful, dynamic, and magnetic presence.			

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all

58. ____ individuals are ready to trust me to overcome any obstacle.
59. ____ subordinates have complete confidence in me.
60. ____ am a symbol of success and accomplishment to others.
61. ____ display extraordinary talent and competence in whatever I decide to undertake.

KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 62-65

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Extremely Effective	Very Effective	Effective	Only Slightly Effective	Not Effective

62. The overall work effectiveness of the work groups I supervise can be classified as ____
63. How effective would you rate yourself in representing your organization to higher authorities e.g., Board, funders, etc.? ____
64. How effective are you in meeting the job-related needs of supervisees? ____
65. How effective a leader would you rate yourself? ____

KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 66-67

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Neither	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied

66. In all, how satisfied do you perceive your subordinates to be with your leadership? ____
67. In all, how satisfied are you with the methods of leadership you use? ____.

APPENDIX IV

SUPERVISEE'S QUESTIONNAIRE

SUPERVISEE'S LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

PART ONE: RESPONDENT PROFILE

Please complete the following questions by checking the appropriate category.

1. Sex: a. Male _____ b. Female _____
2. Age: a. Less than 30 _____ b. 31-40 _____ c. 41-50 _____
d. 51-60 _____ e. 60+ _____
3. Education: a. High School Diploma _____ b. Community College Diploma _____
c. Bachelor's Degree _____ d. Master's Degree _____
e. Doctorate Degree _____ f. Other (Specify) _____
4. Years in current position: a. 3 yrs or less _____ b. 4-5 yrs _____
c. 6-7 yrs _____ d. 8-9 yrs _____ e. 10+ yrs _____
5. How many have held this position since 1985? (circle one)
1 2 3 4 5 + N/A
6. i) Estimate the number of sick days you have taken during the last 12 months:
a. 0-3 _____ b. 4-6 _____ c. 7-9 _____ d. 10-12 _____ e. 12+ _____
ii) Relative to the agency as a whole, this is:
a. below average _____ b. average _____ c. above average _____
7. Current status: a. Supervisor _____ b. Staff _____
8. What is your average hours worked per week?
a. 40 hrs or less _____ b. 41-42 hrs _____ c. 43-44 hrs _____
d. 45-46 hrs _____ e. 47-48 hrs _____ f. 49+ hrs _____

USE THIS KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 9-11

KEY	1	2	3	4	5	6
	strongly disagree	disagree	slightly disagree	neither disagree or agree	agree	strongly agree

9. I often think about quitting. _____
10. I will probably look for a new job in the next year. _____
11. I am satisfied with my job. _____

-
12. My commitment to the agency is:

1	2	3	4	5
extremely strong	strong	neutral	weak	extremely weak

PART TWO

DIRECTIONS: Listed below are descriptive statements. For each statement, we would like you to judge how frequently it fits the leader in your organization that you report to, e.g. Executive Director, Administrator, Chief Executive Officer.

When an item is irrelevant, does not apply, or you are not sure, leave the answer blank.

e.g. "He/She is someone I can discuss my problems with".

Using the key scale below, indicate the appropriate letter that describes the frequency of this behaviour.

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all
13.	___	is content to let me continue to do my job in the same way.			
14.	___	talks optimistically about the future.			
15.	___	treats me as an individual rather than just a member of the group.			
16.	___	things have to go wrong for him/her to take action.			
17.	___	persuades me to go beyond my own self-interest.			
18.	___	works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I do what needs to be done.			
19.	___	is alert for failure to meet standards.			
20.	___	shows the value of questioning assumptions.			
21.	___	articulates a vision of future opportunities.			
22.	___	listens to my concerns.			
23.	___	provides reasons to change my way of thinking about problems.			
24.	___	talks about special rewards for good work.			
25.	___	shows he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broken, don't fix it."			
26.	___	focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of me.			
27.	___	if I don't bother him/her, he/she doesn't bother me.			
28.	___	provides advice when it is needed.			
29.	___	serves as a role model for me.			
30.	___	makes me back up my opinions with good reasoning.			
31.	___	introduces new projects and new challenges.			
32.	___	monitors performance for errors needing correction.			
33.	___	as long as work meets minimal standards, he/she avoids trying to make improvements.			
34.	___	avoids getting involved when important issues arise.			
35.	___	shows how to look at problems from new angles.			
36.	___	sets high standards for himself/herself and others.			

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all
37.	_____	tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts.			
38.	_____	avoids making decisions.			
39.	_____	problems have to be chronic before he/she will take action.			
40.	_____	mobilizes a collective sense of mission.			
41.	_____	points out what I will receive if I do what is required.			
42.	_____	keeps careful track of mistakes.			
43.	_____	serves as teacher or coach as necessary.			
44.	_____	instills pride in being associated with him/her.			
45.	_____	engages in words and deeds which enhances his/her image of competence.			
46.	_____	makes me aware of strongly-held values, ideals, and aspirations which are shared in common.			
47.	_____	demonstrates a strong conviction in his/her beliefs and values.			
48.	_____	projects a powerful, dynamic, and magnetic presence.			
49.	_____	I am ready to trust him/her to overcome any obstacle.			
50.	_____	I have complete confidence in him/her.			
51.	_____	in my mind, he/she is a symbol of success and accomplishment.			
52.	_____	displays extraordinary talent and competence in whatever he/she decides to undertake.			

USE THIS KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 53-56

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Extremely Effective	Very Effective	Effective	Only Slightly Effective	Not Effective
53.	The overall work effectiveness of the work group made up of you and your co-workers can be classified as _____				
54.	How effective is the person you are rating in representing your work group to high authority? _____				
55.	How effective is the person you are rating in meeting the job-related needs of supervisees and/or co-workers? _____				
56.	How effective is the person you are rating in meeting the requirements of the organization? _____				

USE THIS KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 57-58

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Neither Dissatisfied nor satisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied

57. In all, how satisfied are you with the person you are rating as a leader? ____
58. In all, how satisfied are you with the methods of leadership used by the person you are rating to get your work group's job done? ____

USE THIS KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 59-64

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The Executive Director

59. ____ uses information available only to him or her in order to direct decisions at times.
60. ____ uses his/her legitimate rights that go with the position and job responsibilities in order to have people comply with a certain direction.
61. ____ can make everyone's job more difficult and you want to avoid getting him or her angry.
62. ____ feels that information is power and at times acts accordingly.
63. ____ believes strongly that with his/her position come responsibilities that must be commensurate with the necessary authority.
64. ____ rewards or gives benefits to certain people by virtue of his/her position.

65. Does your agency have a written Strategic Plan? a. yes ____ b. no ____

66. To what extent did this survey questionnaire adequately represent the leadership performance of the person you were rating? ____

A	B	C	D	E
Exactly	Extremely Well	Fairly Well	To some Degree	Not at all

APPENDIX V

CMHC LETTER OF ENDORSATION

February, 1992

MEMO TO: All Executive Directors of CMHCs

FROM: Sheila Weinstock
Executive Director, OACMHC

In the next several days you will receive a request from Dieter Kays to participate in some research he is doing. Dieter is the Chief Executive Officer of Lutherwood, a children's mental health centre in Waterloo. He is currently doing his doctorate at Wilfrid Laurier University in the area of leadership and organizational outcomes.

The study he is conducting looks at leadership style and behaviour and its impact on organizational outcomes in human service organizations. His sample will be made up of children's service organizations (Children's Aid Societies, CMHCs, and children and youth institutions) in Ontario.

He would like Executive Directors and the people they supervise to fill out a 20 minute, anonymous, questionnaire. The results could have a considerable impact on both the recruitment, screening and training programmes of Executive Directors and Managers within our sector.

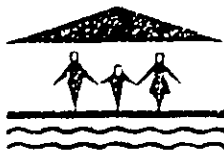
Dieter has indicated to me that all participating agencies will receive a summary of the findings and implications of the study. As well, Dieter would be willing to present his findings to our conferences or meetings. This will allow all member agencies to benefit from the research. Individual agencies or respondents would, of course, not be identified.

I would strongly encourage you to give consideration to participating in this unique study. I know you receive many requests for your involvement in research, but I believe this to be a worthwhile project which will have beneficial results for our sector. The benefits, however, will only come about through your participation.

APPENDIX VI

WATERLOO REGION

CAS LETTER OF ENDORSATION



family and children's services of the waterloo region

incorporated as the "Director's Office" of the Regional Municipality of Waterloo

March 2, 1992

TO: EXECUTIVE DIRECTORS OF ALL CAS'S

Dear Colleague:

Re: A Study to Determine the Impact of Specific Leadership Styles & Behaviours on Organizational Outcomes in Human Service Organizations

This letter accompanies a request from Dieter Kays for your Senior Managers to participate in a research study he is carrying out on the subject of leadership styles and organizational outcomes. Dieter is Executive Director of Lutherwood, which is a Children's Mental Health Centre in Waterloo Region. His research is part of his studies for the DSW degree at Wilfrid Laurier University.

At a time when all human service organizations are under great pressure to downsize and to deliver their services in different, more efficient ways in the future, our skills as directors to accomplish the changes required will be very much put to the test. Dieter's research into management styles, which facilitate or hinder organizational outcomes, stands to be very useful to the field in the long run..

Family & Children's of the Waterloo Region will be participating in this research project since we believe it has merit and long-term value, not only to CAS's, but to the human service field in general. I would like to encourage you also to support this research by agreeing to have your senior staff complete the questionnaire Dieter is submitting. All participating agencies will receive a summary of the findings and implications of the study.

Thank you for your support.

Yours sincerely,

Peter G. Ringrose,
Local Director

364

Peter G. Ringrose
Executive Director

HEAD OFFICE
200 Ardelt Avenue
(at Hanson Ave.)
Kitchener, Ontario N2C 2L9
Phone (519) 576-0540

ADMINISTRATION
Fax (519) 570-0160
CLIENT & LEGAL SERVICES
Fax (519) 576-4709

PGR/ld

BRANCH OFFICE
168 Hespeler Road
Cambridge, Ontario N1H 6V7
Phone (519) 623-6970
Fax (519) 622-5174

APPENDIX VII

INITIAL PARTICIPANT REQUEST

March 9, 1992

Dear Executive Director:

I am writing to ask you, and the people you directly supervise, to participate in a research project. This project will investigate the impact of leadership style and characteristics on organizational outputs in human service organizations.

Your involvement, and that of the people you directly supervise, will be limited to filling out a confidential and anonymous questionnaire. Each questionnaire would be returned directly to the researcher. It should take no more than 20 minutes to complete, and will be sent within the next six weeks. While 100% participation of your supervisees is desirable, it is not essential.

Your participation in this project will help us better understand the dynamics of leadership, and how the selection and training of individuals for management positions in our sector might be enhanced. As a participant, you will receive a summary of the findings. As well, workshops on the results would be presented at a later date.

A more detailed outline of the research is enclosed, along with a response card.

PLEASE RETURN THE ENCLOSED RESPONSE CARD AT YOUR EARLIEST CONVENIENCE, BUT NOT LATER THAN MARCH 23, 1992.

Should you have any further questions please call me at home, 519-699-4217, or at the office, 519-884-1470. I look forward to receiving your response.

Kindest regards,

Dieter E. Kays
Chief Executive Officer

DEK:pr
Encl.

A STUDY TO DETERMINE THE IMPACT OF
SPECIFIC LEADERSHIP STYLES AND BEHAVIOURS
ON ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOMES
IN HUMAN SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

In today's human services sector, agencies and organizations are faced with external funding constraints, government policy and procedures, professional associations, unions, and a more consumer-driven clientele. Consequently, there is great debate about the degree to which an Executive Director can influence and guide the direction of an agency and its activity under these conditions. This study will analyze leadership styles and behaviours, and the impact these have on certain organizational outputs.

The study will investigate the existence of transformational and transactional leadership factors among Executive Directors in child welfare agencies. The goal is to determine whether these are linked to outcomes that are traditionally associated with an effective organization. This research builds on the theories of Bernard Bass from the Center of Leadership Studies, at State University of New York, Binghamton, New York.

Each Executive Director and immediate subordinate would be asked to complete a questionnaire providing profile information on the agency and the respondents. Each questionnaire would require 15-20 minutes to fill out. To assure anonymity and confidentiality to the agency and the respondents, questionnaires would be returned directly to the researcher, and would be coded. Results would only be reported in the aggregate in the final analysis.

To date, a study of this area has not been done within the human services sector. The results would potentially have an impact on future screening and training of Managers and Executive Directors in this field. A summary of the research will be sent to each participating agency. Results will also be presented in workshops.

THE RESEARCHER: Dieter Kays is the Chief Executive Officer of Lutherwood, a Children's Mental Health Centre in Waterloo Region. He has held this position since 1977. Lutherwood is reputed to be a leader in the delivery of children's mental health services in the province. It is one of a handful of centres to achieve accreditation, and provides a range of treatment and preventative services for children, families, and communities.

Dieter has had a long standing interest in leadership and management in the voluntary sector and is currently a doctoral candidate in the School of Social Work at Wilfrid Laurier University in Waterloo. The proposed study is to fulfill the requirements of the doctoral dissertation.

Name _____ Agency _____
Address _____ P.C. _____
____ Yes, we will participate _____ No, we will not participate
Comment _____

Number of people I supervise (including support staff) _____
Number of years in position as Executive Director with agency _____ Yrs.

PLEASE RETURN NO LATER THAN MARCH 16, 1992)

Name _____ Agency _____
Address _____ P.C. _____
____ Yes, we will participate _____ No, we will not participate
Comment _____

Number of people I supervise (including support staff) _____
Number of years in position as Executive Director with agency _____ Yrs.

PLEASE RETURN NO LATER THAN MARCH 16, 1992)

Name _____ Agency _____
Address _____ P.C. _____
____ Yes, we will participate _____ No, we will not participate
Comment _____

Number of people I supervise (including support staff) _____
Number of years in position as Executive Director with agency _____ Yrs.

PLEASE RETURN NO LATER THAN MARCH 16, 1992)

APPENDIX VIII

PARTICIPATING AGENCY PACKAGE

Note: The letter of introduction addressed to the Executive Director/Administrator indicates that a white questionnaire is to be filled out by the Executive Director, and a green questionnaire is to be filled out by the Board Chairperson. Both of these questionnaires fall outside the scope of this dissertation and the data was collected for future research.

March, 1992

Dear Executive Director/Administrator:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study of leadership styles, and its impact on organizational outcomes. This is a unique and timely study that I believe will enhance the ability of our sector to select and train individuals for top management positions.

There are three different questionnaires contained in this package.

The WHITE questionnaire is to be filled in by you, THE EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR / CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER / ADMINISTRATOR. Please fill it in at your earliest convenience, and return it in the self-addressed envelope within the next 10 days.

The YELLOW questionnaire(s) is/are to be distributed to THOSE PERSONS YOU SUPERVISE or have regular contact with. They also are asked to fill in the questionnaire at their earliest convenience and return it using the self-addressed envelope, within the next 10 days.

Likewise, the GREEN questionnaire is to be given to your BOARD CHAIRPERSON and returned on the same timeline. This was a recent addition in order to increase the validity of the information gathered. Please be assured all responses will remain confidential.

Again, thank you for your participation. I look forward to giving you a summary of the results in the fall of 1992. Should you have any questions please call me at 519-699-4217 or 519-884-1470.

Kindest regards,

Dieter E. Kays
Chief Executive Officer

DEK:pr
Encl.

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR/ADMINISTRATOR QUESTIONNAIRE

PART ONE: AGENCY PROFILE

Please answer the following questions by checking the appropriate category.

1. Location of your agency:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| a. Rural _____
(less than 5,000) | b. Town _____
(5,000 to 50,000) |
| c. City _____
(50,000 - 300,000) | d. Metropolitan area _____
(300,000 +) |

2. Type of organization:

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| a. C.A.S. _____ | b. C.M.H.C. _____ | c. Hospital _____ |
| d. Counselling agency _____ | e. Other _____ | |

3. Type of services provided:

- | | | |
|--|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a. Residential _____ | b. Day Treatment _____ | c. Outclient/Outpatient _____ |
| d. Consultation _____ | e. Child Protection _____ | |
| f. Range of inpatient medical services _____ | | |

4. Sponsorship of the agency:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| a. Government _____ | b. Consumer group _____ |
| c. Religious organization _____ | d. Local community _____
(Professionals, service group, etc.) |

5. Number of years in existence:

- | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| a. 5 years or less _____ | b. 6-10 _____ | c. 11-15 _____ |
| d. 16-20 _____ | e. 20+ _____ | |

6. Number of employees (F.T.E.):
 - a. 10 or less _____
 - b. 11-30 _____
 - c. 31-50 _____
 - d. 51-70 _____
 - e. 71-90 _____
 - f. 90+ _____

7. Indicate the agency's budget for:

1985/86 _____	1986/87 _____	1987/88 _____
1988/89 _____	1989/90 _____	1990/91 _____
1991/92 _____		

8. Estimate the source of 1991/92 income on a % basis:
 - a. Government grants _____
 - b. Fees _____
 - c. Fundraising _____
 - d. Other (describe) _____

9. Estimate the % of agency employees belonging to these professional groups:
 - a. Child Care Workers _____
 - b. Social Workers _____
 - c. Support Staff _____
 - d. Psychologists _____
 - e. Speech Therapists _____
 - f. Other _____

10. Estimate the % of your employees unionized: _____

11. Estimate your agency's staff turnover rate in:
 - a. 1989/90 _____
 - b. 1990/91 _____
 - c. 1991/92 _____

12. Estimate the average number of sick days taken by your employees over the past year:
 - a. 0-3 _____
 - b. 4-6 _____
 - c. 7-9 _____
 - d. 10-12 _____
 - e. more than 12 _____

13. How many sites does your agency operate from:
 - a. One _____
 - b. Two _____
 - c. Three to five _____
 - d. Six to eight _____
 - e. More than eight _____

PART TWO: EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR'S PROFILE

Please answer the following questions about yourself by checking the appropriate line.

14. Years of experience in this position: a. Less than 2 yrs ____
 b. 2-3 yrs ____ c. 4-5 yrs ____ d. 6-7 yrs ____
 e. 8-9 yrs ____ f. 10+ yrs ____
15. Years of experience as Executive Director/Administrator:
 a. Less than 2 yrs ____ b. 2-3 yrs ____ c. 4-5 yrs ____
 d. 6-7 yrs ____ e. 8-9 yrs ____ f. 10+ yrs ____
16. Your current age: a. less than 30 ____ b. 31-40 ____
 c. 41-50 ____ d. 51-60 ____ e. 60+ ____
17. Your approximate salary:
 a. less than \$50,000 ____ b. 51-60K ____ c. 61-70K ____
 d. 71-80K ____ e. 81-90K ____ f. \$91,000+ ____
18. Sex: Male ____ Female ____
19. Education/Training:
 a. High School Graduate ____ b. Community College degree ____
 c. Bachelor's Degree ____ d. Master's degree ____
 e. Doctorate degree ____ f. Other (please specify) _____
20. Religious involvement: I attend religious services
 a. regularly (2 or more times/month) ____
 b. occasionally (once per month) ____
 c. sometimes (several times per year) ____ d. not at all ____
21. Please rank the following in order of importance to you,
 e.g. 1, 2, 3, etc.:
 "I find meaning in and draw strength from ... "
 a. Family ____ b. Friends ____ c. Work ____
 d. Religious faith ____ e. Philosophy of life ____
 f. Other (Please describe) _____

PART THREE

DIRECTIONS: Listed below are descriptive statements of leaders. For each statement, we would like you to judge how frequently it fits your leadership style. When the item does not apply or you are uncertain please leave the answer blank.

e.g. "I am someone supervisees can discuss their problems with."

Using the key scale below, indicate the appropriate letter that describes the frequency of this behaviour.

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all

-
22. ___ am content to let others continue to do their jobs in the same way.
23. ___ talk optimistically about the future.
24. ___ treat people as individuals rather than just as members of the group.
25. ___ things have to go wrong for me to take action.
-
26. ___ persuade others to go beyond their own self interest.
27. ___ work out agreements with subordinates on what they will receive if they do what needs to be done.
28. ___ am alert to failure to meet standards.
29. ___ show the value of questioning assumptions.
-
30. ___ articulate a vision of future opportunities.
31. ___ listen to concerns.
32. ___ provide reasons to change a person's way of thinking about problems.
33. ___ talk about special rewards for good work.
-
34. ___ am a firm believer in "If it ain't broken, don't fix it."
35. ___ focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of employees.
36. ___ don't bother them, if they don't bother me.
37. ___ provide advice if it is needed.

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all
38.	_____	serve as a role model.			
39.	_____	make employees back up opinions with good reasoning.			
40.	_____	introduce new projects and new challenges.			
41.	_____	monitor performance for errors needing correction.			
42.	_____	as long as work meets minimal standards, I avoid trying to make improvements.			
43.	_____	avoid getting involved when important issues arise.			
44.	_____	show how to look at problems from new angles.			
45.	_____	set high standards for myself and others.			
46.	_____	tell supervisees what to do in order to be rewarded for their efforts.			
47.	_____	avoid making decisions.			
48.	_____	problems have to be chronic before I will take action.			
49.	_____	mobilize a collective sense of mission.			
50.	_____	point out what persons will receive if they do what is required.			
51.	_____	keep careful track of mistakes.			
52.	_____	serve as a teacher or coach as necessary.			
53.	_____	instill pride in being associated with the organization.			
54.	_____	engage in words and deeds which enhances my image of competence.			
55.	_____	make persons aware of strongly-held values, ideals and aspirations which are shared in common.			
56.	_____	demonstrate a strong conviction in my beliefs and values.			
57.	_____	project a powerful, dynamic, and magnetic presence.			

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all

58. _____ individuals are ready to trust me to overcome any obstacle.
59. _____ subordinates have complete confidence in me.
60. _____ am a symbol of success and accomplishment to others.
61. _____ display extraordinary talent and competence in whatever I decide to undertake.

KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 62-65

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Extremely Effective	Very Effective	Effective	Only Slightly Effective	Not Effective

62. The overall work effectiveness of the work groups I supervise can be classified as _____
63. How effective would you rate yourself in representing your organization to higher authorities e.g., Board, funders, etc.? _____
64. How effective are you in meeting the job-related needs of supervisees? _____
65. How effective a leader would you rate yourself? _____

KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 66-67

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Neither	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied

66. In all, how satisfied do you perceive your subordinates to be with your leadership? _____
67. In all, how satisfied are you with the methods of leadership you use? _____.

March 1992

Dear Respondent:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research on leadership style, and its impact on organizational outcomes. Your feedback is essential in order to obtain information that will further the work in this area. The results of this study will assist in the appropriate selection and training of senior management personnel in the human services sector.

Please take the time to fill out the respondent's questionnaire as soon as it is convenient for you. Return it to me, in the self-addressed envelope, within the next 10 days. All information provided will remain confidential and anonymous. Should you have any questions please call me, at 519-699-4217 or 519-884-1470.

As soon as the data has been analyzed and a summary report completed, I will provide the results of the study to your agency. I anticipate this will be sometime in late fall of 1992.

Again, thank you for the time spent on this survey.

Kindest regards,

Dieter E. Kays
Chief Executive Officer

DEK:pr
Encl.

P.S. This research is partially to meet the requirements for a Doctorate Degree at Wilfrid Laurier University, Waterloo. The Ethics Committee has just informed me that an informed consent form is required. Please review the enclosed information carefully.

CONDITIONS OF INVOLVEMENT IN LEADERSHIP STUDY

The following is a review of the key points relevant to your involvement in this study. You are encouraged to keep this sheet for future reference.

1. The study is being conducted in partial fulfillment of the Doctorate of Social Work Degree at Wilfrid Laurier University.
2. While the Executive Director has consented to have the agency participate, your involvement is voluntary and may be withheld.
3. Your involvement is anonymous and confidential. The raw data you submit will only be available in coded form to the primary researcher and the members of the Dissertation Committee. No one else will have access to the information.
4. The questionnaires will be kept in a secure place until the study is complete, and then destroyed.
5. The information will only be reported in an aggregate form, not on an agency basis.
6. Should you have any additional concerns, please get in touch with:
Dieter Kays, 519-699-4217, or
Dr. Eli Teram, Dissertation Committee Chair, 519-884-1970.

If you agree to participate in this study, please fill in the consent form below. After detaching it, you may include it in the brown envelope with the questionnaire, OR seal it in the enclosed white envelope and return it in the same envelope with the questionnaire, OR, return it separately.

= = = = =

**I have read the CONDITIONS OF INVOLVEMENT FOR THE
LEADERSHIP STUDY, and agree to participate in the study.**

Date

Signature

SUPERVISEE'S LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

PART ONE: RESPONDENT PROFILE

Please complete the following questions by checking the appropriate category.

1. Sex: a. Male _____ b. Female _____
2. Age: a. Less than 30 _____ b. 31-40 _____ c. 41-50 _____
d. 51-60 _____ e. 60+ _____
3. Education: a. High School Diploma _____ b. Community College Diploma _____
c. Bachelor's Degree _____ d. Master's Degree _____
e. Doctorate Degree _____ f. Other (Specify) _____
4. Years in current position: a. 3 yrs or less _____ b. 4-5 yrs _____
c. 6-7 yrs _____ d. 8-9 yrs _____ e. 10+ yrs _____
5. How many have held this position since 1985? (circle one)
1 2 3 4 5 + N/A
6. i) Estimate the number of sick days you have taken during the last 12 months:
a. 0-3 _____ b. 4-6 _____ c. 7-9 _____ d. 10-12 _____ e. 12+ _____
ii) Relative to the agency as a whole, this is:
a. below average _____ b. average _____ c. above average _____
7. Current status: a. Supervisor _____ b. Staff _____
8. What is your average hours worked per week?
a. 40 hrs or less _____ b. 41-42 hrs _____ c. 43-44 hrs _____
d. 45-46 hrs _____ e. 47-48 hrs _____ f. 49+ hrs _____

USE THIS KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 9-11

KEY	1	2	3	4	5	6
	strongly disagree	disagree	slightly disagree	neither disagree or agree	agree	strongly agree

9. I often think about quitting. _____
10. I will probably look for a new job in the next year. _____
11. I am satisfied with my job. _____

-
12. My commitment to the agency is:

1	2	3	4	5
extremely strong	strong	neutral	weak	extremely weak

PART TWO

DIRECTIONS: Listed below are descriptive statements. For each statement, we would like you to judge how frequently it fits the leader in your organization that you report to, e.g. Executive Director, Administrator, Chief Executive Officer.

When an item is irrelevant, does not apply, or you are not sure, leave the answer blank.

e.g. "He/She is someone I can discuss my problems with".

Using the key scale below, indicate the appropriate letter that describes the frequency of this behaviour.

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all
13.	___	is content to let me continue to do my job in the same way.			
14.	___	talks optimistically about the future.			
15.	___	treats me as an individual rather than just a member of the group.			
16.	___	things have to go wrong for him/her to take action.			
17.	___	persuades me to go beyond my own self-interest.			
18.	___	works out agreements with me on what I will receive if I do what needs to be done.			
19.	___	is alert for failure to meet standards.			
20.	___	shows the value of questioning assumptions.			
21.	___	articulates a vision of future opportunities.			
22.	___	listens to my concerns.			
23.	___	provides reasons to change my way of thinking about problems.			
24.	___	talks about special rewards for good work.			
25.	___	shows he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broken, don't fix it."			
26.	___	focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from what is expected of me.			
27.	___	if I don't bother him/her, he/she doesn't bother me.			
28.	___	provides advice when it is needed.			
29.	___	serves as a role model for me.			
30.	___	makes me back up my opinions with good reasoning.			
31.	___	introduces new projects and new challenges.			
32.	___	monitors performance for errors needing correction.			
33.	___	as long as work meets minimal standards, he/she avoids trying to make improvements.			
34.	___	avoids getting involved when important issues arise.			
35.	___	shows how to look at problems from new angles.			
36.	___	sets high standards for himself/herself and others.			

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Frequently if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all
37.	_____	tells me what to do to be rewarded for my efforts.			
38.	_____	avoids making decisions.			
39.	_____	problems have to be chronic before he/she will take action.			
40.	_____	mobilizes a collective sense of mission.			
41.	_____	points out what I will receive if I do what is required.			
42.	_____	keeps careful track of mistakes.			
43.	_____	serves as teacher or coach as necessary.			
44.	_____	instills pride in being associated with him/her.			
45.	_____	engages in words and deeds which enhances his/her image of competence.			
46.	_____	makes me aware of strongly-held values, ideals, and aspirations which are shared in common.			
47.	_____	demonstrates a strong conviction in his/her beliefs and values.			
48.	_____	projects a powerful, dynamic, and magnetic presence.			
49.	_____	I am ready to trust him/her to overcome any obstacle.			
50.	_____	I have complete confidence in him/her.			
51.	_____	in my mind, he/she is a symbol of success and accomplishment.			
52.	_____	displays extraordinary talent and competence in whatever he/she decides to undertake.			

USE THIS KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 53-56

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Extremely Effective	Very Effective	Effective	Only Slightly Effective	Not Effective
53.	The overall work effectiveness of the work group made up of you and your co-workers can be classified as _____				
54.	How effective is the person you are rating in representing your work group to high authority? _____				
55.	How effective is the person you are rating in meeting the job-related needs of supervisees and/or co-workers? _____				
56.	How effective is the person you are rating in meeting the requirements of the organization? _____				

USE THIS KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 57-58

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Very Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Neither Dissatisfied nor satisfied	Somewhat Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied

57. In all, how satisfied are you with the person you are rating as a leader? ____
58. In all, how satisfied are you with the methods of leadership used by the person you are rating to get your work group's job done? ____

USE THIS KEY TO RESPONSES FOR ITEMS 59-64

KEY	A	B	C	D	E
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

The Executive Director

59. ____ uses information available only to him or her in order to direct decisions at times.
60. ____ uses his/her legitimate rights that go with the position and job responsibilities in order to have people comply with a certain direction.
61. ____ can make everyone's job more difficult and you want to avoid getting him or her angry.
62. ____ feels that information is power and at times acts accordingly.
63. ____ believes strongly that with his/her position come responsibilities that must be commensurate with the necessary authority.
64. ____ rewards or gives benefits to certain people by virtue of his/her position.
-
65. Does your agency have a written Strategic Plan? a. yes ____ b. no ____
66. To what extent did this survey questionnaire adequately represent the leadership performance of the person you were rating? ____

A	B	C	D	E
Exactly	Extremely Well	Fairly Well	To some Degree	Not at all

APPENDIX IX

REMINDER LETTER

May 4, 1992

Dear Executive Director:

RE: Leadership Study - A "Gentle" Reminder

Some time ago you agreed to participate in the leadership study that I am conducting as a part of my dissertation requirements at Wilfrid Laurier University. The response has been excellent in most cases. In other cases, questionnaires are still outstanding. I know you and your staff are extremely busy, but in order for your agency to be included in the overall results I must receive your data within the next week.

I would be very grateful if you could remind your immediate subordinates of the importance of the study and encourage them to return the questionnaires at their earliest convenience. If you have not already sent in your questionnaire, I would appreciate you doing this in the next several days.

Should you have any further questions please do not hesitate to call me. Thank you again for your help in this matter.

Warmest regards,

Dieter E. Kays
Chief Executive Officer

DEK:pr
Encl.

P.S. Please find enclosed a suggested memo that you may wish to send out.